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Identifying Predictors of Organizational Commitment Among Community College Faculty Members in Arkansas

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Identifying Predictors of Organizational Commitment Among
Community College Faculty Members in Arkansas

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Abstract

Community colleges serve an important function of allowing students to achieve an affordable education closer to home. However, these opportunities often challenge community college faculty members due to smaller budgets and resources, which leads to differentiation in curriculum delivery, underprepared students, increasing workloads, and increasing stakeholder expectations. As such, across the nation, faculty are showing lack of commitment, lowered engagement, and increasing turnover rate. This study sought to determine the predictors of organizational commitment in community college faculty, using Meyer and Allen's framework of three components of this commitment. Both individual demographic characteristics of faculty, and institution characteristics of degree of urbanization, racial diversity, and student-to-faculty ratio were analyzed to determine whether they predicted levels of organizational commitment in faculty. A survey of faculty from all 22 community colleges in Arkansas showed that few of the identified characteristics predicted organizational commitment, namely race/ethnicity, gender, disciplines taught, and student-to-faculty ratio. However, the data overall showed strong levels of organizational commitment from those surveyed, indicating that faculty in Arkansas differ greatly in a positive manner from national trends.

Table of Contents

Identifying Predictors of Organizational Commitment Among Community College Faculty Members in Arkansas

Chapter One: Introduction

Status of the Issue

Community colleges were established as an alternative to university learning for students who could not afford the high tuition of a four-year institution or wanted an educational experience closer to home. Since their inception, community colleges have expanded in numbers and degree offerings, not only providing transfer opportunities to other institutions, but also technical degrees, continuing education courses, and community enrichment events (Cohen, Brawer, & Kisker, 2014). Community colleges, however, are in a period of transition. According to Staley & Trinkle (2011), the modern community college faculty member must contend with increasing differentiation of curriculum delivery, wide-ranging student ability, globalization of students, and pressure to demonstrate the value of a degree. The notion of teaching as simply expounding knowledge has given way to new concerns in higher education: specifically, meeting the needs of a diverse student pool, staying ahead of technological advances, and maintaining current knowledge in often evolving disciplines (Stolzenberg, 2002).

In addition to these pressures, accrediting bodies have placed a higher priority on assessment (Accrediting Commission for Community and Junior Colleges, 2014; Higher Learning Commission, 2017; New England Association for Schools and Colleges, 2016), and according to the National Conference of State Legislatures (2015), thirty-two states "have a funding formula or policy in place to allocate a portion of funding based on performance indicators such as course completion, time to degree, transfer rates, the number of degrees awarded, or the number of low-income and minority graduates" (para. 3). Since funding has historically hinged solely on enrollment, this shift has placed more pressure on institutions and

instructors to modify focuses of existing practices to meet these expectations in order to maintain sufficient levels of funding.

Despite the increased demands on faculty, workloads have continued to increase. Whereas four-year university faculty typically teach a maximum of four classes, community college faculty are often required to teach five to six (Jenkins, 2016), with work hours often in the range of 50-60 hours per week (Flaherty, 2015). Community college faculty often feel, according to Bright (2002), frustrated and discouraged "because they often must teach academically under-prepared students in inadequate facilities, with limited resources" (p. 6). In addition, the various sizes and scopes of community colleges present additional issues in the form of heavy course loads and variety of subjects taught. Eddy (2010) found that community college faculty in rural areas not only serve more roles that those in larger institutions, they also have to teach to a narrower curriculum.

Hardy and Katsinas (2007) found significant differences in enrollment, funding, and class sizes not only between two and four-year institutions, but also between types of two-year colleges. Although Troy (2013) claims that "faculty engagement can have a tremendous impact not only on students' future but the future of the college" (p. 52), Yates (2015) claims that overscheduled faculty often lose their energy and desire to be involved in the college as a whole. Additionally, community college is sometimes viewed as a "poor relative" to larger universities by communities, potential students, and even others in the academy (Fugate & Amey, 2000). As such, these stressors have resulted in community college faculty experiencing decreased engagement (Cornerstone, 2016), lowered effectiveness (Maxey & Kezar, 2016), higher absenteeism, and increased attrition (Jo, 2008, Xu, 2008, Johnsrud & Rosser, 2002).

Problem Statement

The effects of community college faculty stress are becoming increasingly obvious. Lightner and Sipple (2013) state that even the most dedicated community college faculty experience "stale teaching methods, outdated ideas, and personal and professional burnout" (p. 453). Lacrkritz (2004) found that characteristics that positively correlated to emotional exhaustion and disengagement actually matched to career descriptions of community college faculty; namely, large student numbers/teaching load, significant grading, increased office hours, and college service requirements. A recent survey by the Human Capital Media Research and Advisory Group (2016) found that "fifty-two percent of faculty members were not engaged in their work, and an additional fourteen percent were actively disengaged. Only thirty-four percent reported feeling engaged at their jobs" (p. 2).

Additionally, data shows a trend toward a higher turnover rate for community colleges compared to other higher education institutions. According to a 2014 employment report conducted by HigherEdJobs, an online job search site for higher education, jobs remained flat overall in 2013. However, at community colleges, the number of postings for open positions increased, while the actual number of available jobs decreased. This means that although the number of available jobs decreased, there were more openings in those positions, indicating more faculty were leaving, which points to a high rate of turnover (HigherEdJobs, 2014). In addition, a 2015 employer survey completed by Compdata Surveys and Consulting found that turnover rates decreased for every type of higher education institution except community colleges (Compdata Consulting, 2015).

A key starting point in maintaining a consistent workforce and reversing the aforementioned negative engagement and employment trends is to understand and recognize the influences that lead employees to disengage from their work and ultimately break from the

organization. Social science researchers have identified a multifaceted "psychological state linking employees to their organizations" (Meyer & Allen, 1997, p. 23) known as organizational commitment. Research conducted in the workplace using this construct has resulted in consistent findings illustrating how committed employees are to their organizations (Blau & Boal, 1989; Chuo, 2003; Dawley, Stephens, & Stephens 2005; Farris, 2012; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Slocombe & Dougherty, 1998). Furthermore, additional research has shown that certain demographic characteristics of faculty can act as predictors of this commitment (Fraunehoffer, 1998; Kaiser, 2005; Messer, 2006; Mueller et al., 1998; Saharwal & Corley, 2009; Short, 2013; Ng & Feldman, 2011; Austin-Hickey, 2013; Hill, 2014). However, higher education has lagged behind in evaluating this facet of their employees, as a 2016 study found that almost half of higher education institutions do not track employee engagement, let alone measure any type of commitment to the organization (Elucian Corporation, 2016).

Despite these issues, the research concerning faculty commitment in community college is sparse. Most of the studies conducted in the last twenty-five years have focused on four-year research universities (Engle, 2010). These institutions differ from the community college not only in the ability to offer faculty research opportunities and tenure, but also to have more well-prepared students. Only 7% of universities have an open admissions policy, compared to 62% of community colleges (U.S. Department of Education, 2001), making the student populations at these institutions quite unique from each other. Unfortunately, as of 2010, only seven studies in the last twenty-five years have focused on the organizational commitment of community college faculty, and they have varied widely in their scope, geographic location, and focus (Engle, 2010). In addition, very few have examined organizational commitment levels across an entire state.

Therefore, the knowledge base concerning commitment in community colleges is fragmented and underdeveloped.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine the predictors of organizational commitment in community college faculty in Arkansas. The mission statement of any educational institution focuses in some form on the education of its students. In analyzing how to best achieve building full faculty buy-in to those missions, Czikszentmihalyi (1982) claims that teachers who are personally motivated to teach achieve the most success in motivating students to learn. To that end, researchers have found that if an employee possesses legitimate commitment to the organization, behaviors such as motivation, engagement, effectiveness, and loyalty will naturally follow (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). In order for institutions to maintain a motivated, effective workforce, they must strive to have their instructors fully committed to the mission of the college. Recognizing which factors impact the faculty's organizational commitment could impact the success of the institution, as this has been shown to directly affect employee engagement and intent to leave (Porter et al., 1982; Meyer & Allen, 1990). If an understanding of commitment is ignored, institutions risk losing highly effective faculty to other higher education institutions or to other industries. A clear identification of key factors that predict organizational commitment will also allow community colleges to identify those most at risk of experiencing waning commitment and, in turn, implement organizational interventions designed to bolster that commitment.

This study used the three component model of organizational commitment developed by John Meyer and Natalie Allen (1990). Their studies have focused on three different yet interdependent components of commitment: affective, continuance, and normative. Examining

commitment through this lens can provide administrators a more robust picture of what specifically links an employee to an organization, as each one of these components gauges the specific ways an individual approaches his or her work life. In addition, previous research has shown that individual demographic characteristics as well as institutional characteristics influence these varying components (Austin-Hickey, 2013; Engle, 2010; Hill, 1984; Messer, 2006; Kaiser, 2005; Short, 2013). As faculty continue to be tasked with myriad of initiatives, studies such as this can guide administrators as they attempt to determine faculty's mindset toward their relationship with the institution. Having this information will help institutional leaders create strategies to foster a greater sense of commitment, as committed employees have shown to be more engaged, have a lower propensity to leave, and typically go above and beyond their job duties (Porter, Mowday, & Steers, 1982).

The primary question guiding this research is:

> What are the factors that predict the organizational commitment of faculty members in community colleges in Arkansas?

The sub-questions are:

- What individual factors (i.e. age, gender, race, occupational tenure, subject matter expertise/disciplines taught, and organizational tenure) predict faculty members' level of affective commitment in community colleges in Arkansas?
- What individual factors (i.e. age, gender, race, occupational tenure, subject matter expertise/disciplines taught, and organizational tenure) predict faculty members' level of normative commitment in community colleges in Arkansas?

- What individual factors (i.e. age, gender, race, occupational tenure, subject matter expertise/disciplines taught, and organizational tenure) predict faculty members' level of continuance commitment in community colleges in Arkansas?
- Does organizational commitment vary across community colleges?
- Do community college variables (i.e., degree of urbanization, student-to-faculty ratio, and racial diversity) help explain the variability of organizational commitment among community colleges?
- Does the relationship between faculty's race/ethnicity and organizational commitment vary as a function of the racial/ethnic makeup of the school?

Theoretical Framework

While numerous frameworks exist for gauging employees' commitment to their organizations, Meyer and Allen (1990) established a three-component model that examines the conceptualizations of affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Affective commitment addresses the emotional attachment employees have to the organization; continuance commitment focuses on the perceived costs employees associate with leaving the organization; and finally, normative commitment emphasizes the sense of obligation employees have for staying employed with the institution. Analyzing these factors is important because they correlate strongly with an employee's intention to leave, and they measure the strength of employees' bond with the organization, as well as their propensity to go above and beyond minimum job expectations, which are qualities associated with high engagement (Troy, 2013).

Additionally, Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993), in a second iteration of the original study, argued that this multidimensional approach has value because "it provides a more complete understanding of a person's tie to his or her occupation" (p. 540). They continue:

> Although all three forms of commitment might be related to an individual's likelihood of remaining in an occupation, the nature of the person's involvement in the occupation might be quite different depending on which form of commitment is predominant. (p. 540)

Identifying and analyzing these components of organizational commitment in the context of individual demographics may provide a clearer picture of the predictors of organizational commitment among faculty in community colleges in Arkansas.

While other studies have examined job satisfaction and morale (Abharwal & Corley, 2009; Bright, 2002; McBride, Munday, & Tunell, 2002; Norman, Ambrose, & Hutson, 2006), those concepts have been classified as byproducts of commitment. Becker (1992) discovered a significant correlation between commitment and job satisfaction, turnover intent, and social behavior within the organization, leading to the study of organizational commitment emerging as a more effective means of determining overall commitment. To that end, researchers have also found organizational commitment to uniquely predict the variables of job satisfaction and morale (Blau & Boal, 1989; DeCotiis, 1987; Tett & Meyer, 1993), establishing these variables as outcomes, not predictors. In addition, organizational commitment has been categorized as a psychological state (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Porter, Mowday, & Steers, 1982), which is a more realistic gauge of employee involvement within the organization, as one's mental context influences behavior (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Importance of the Study

Many of the stressors felt by faculty lead to the behaviors administrators should strive to avoid, namely, decreased engagement, decreased effectiveness, and increased intentions to leave. Since some research has shown that organizational commitment directly affects engagement, identifying the predictors that influence faculty's level of commitment to these specific institutions could help guide academic leaders to implement effective supports for their

instructors. Institutions spend considerable time and resources on analyzing their students; from surveys to focus groups to demographic data analysis, colleges do their best to ascertain who their students are in order to implement strategies to increase their chances of success in their courses and stay on track to complete a degree. However, the same effort does not occur with their most important resource: the faculty who empowers students to achieve that success. Recent estimates show that faculty engagement is measured by only half of higher education institutions (Elucian Corporation, 2016). Identifying factors that impact organizational commitment can enable administrators to have a clearer picture of their faculty's commitment to the organization, which can help inform better hiring practices, determine more impactful professional development activities, and place employees in positions where they can be most effective.

Working to identify predictors of organizational commitment will also help institutions avoid costs associated with turnover. Studies have shown turnover costs U.S. higher education institutions 68 million dollars each year, mainly due to a loss of skill, productivity, and morale (Jo, 2008). Retaining an organization's workforce will not only relieve the obvious costs of rehiring positions, but also reduce the hidden costs of retraining and acclimating new hires to the institution, which costs time as well as money. In addition, a key facet of this study is the identification of how the varying types of components of commitment account for personality differences among employees. All employees have a motivation behind their commitment or lack thereof (Meyer & Allen, 1991), and to that end, this study helps identify those motivations and enable organizations to engage in more effective human resource management.

This study also addresses a gap in research. While organizational commitment studies are abundant in the business sector, few studies have been conducted in higher education, with

even fewer focused on the community college. Rhoades (2012) stated that "realizing increases in student attainment . . . requires leadership and engagement by professors . . . [so] faculty are central to enhancing quality and student attainment" (p. 3). As such, every effort should be made to ensure colleges have fully engaged faculty, as well as faculty not prone to leave the institution.

Questions to be answered and objectives to be investigated

In this study the primary question was "What factors predict levels of organizational commitment among community college faculty in Arkansas?" To help answer this question, different demographic variables were examined to determine their relationship to the three components of organizational commitment. These were classified as level-one predictors. Studies have shown gender (Stengel, 1983; Short, 2013; Frauenhoffer, 1998; Malloy, 1996), age (Kaiser, 2005; Messer, 2006; Engle, 2010; Austin-Hickey, 2013; Gormley, 2005), race (Mueller et al., 1999; Pettaway, 2014; Neimann & Dovidio, 1998; Wantabe, 2010), subject matter expertise (Flynn, 2005; Xu, 2008; Hill, 2014), occupational tenure (Flynn, 2005; Short, 2013; Austin-Hickey, 2013; Frauenhoffer, 1998), and organizational tenure (Hill, 1984; Short, 2013; Flynn, 2000; Ng & Feldman, 2011) all impact organizational commitment in various forms. In addition, other studies have identified institutional factors that affect commitment. These were categorized as level-two predictors, and have been identified namely as institution size (degree of urbanization) (Hardy & Katsinas, 2007; Hicks & Jones, 2011), class size (faculty to student ratio) (Monks & Schmidt, 2011; Riehl & Sipple, 1996), ethnic makeup of students (Mueller et al., 1999), and faculty (Sabharwal & Corley, 2009). The objectives of this study, then, were to establish possible links between demographic characteristics, institutional characteristics, and components of faculty's commitment.

Delimitations

This study specifically focused on faculty organizational commitment in community colleges in Arkansas. Community colleges, as opposed to universities, have unique challenges in motivating faculty. First, community college faculty do not have the benefit of tenure; most work on a year-to-year contract without guaranteed employment. Second, since budgets at two-year institutions do not benefit from higher enrollment, large state allocations, athletics, or generous donations, instructors do not have the ability to take sabbaticals or participate in research opportunities, as most are required to engage in full teaching loads with no release time. This lack of benefits makes community college faculty a distinctive demographic.

Additionally, although many other states' community colleges operate in a system overseen by a four-year university or consortium governed by a board of regents, institutions in Arkansas operate under a variety of governance systems. Some institutions are part of a larger university system ultimately governed by the board of the large system as a whole, while others operate independently, governed by a local board of trustees. Therefore, examining community colleges as a whole provides valuable information to all institutions that has not been previously accessible.

While other studies have focused on employee factors such as job satisfaction and morale, this study focused solely on organizational commitment. Organizational commitment encompasses the psychological mindset that ultimately affects concepts such as morale and job satisfaction, and has been shown to be a stronger measure of employee engagement (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Definition of Key Terms

Organizational Commitment. While this study touched on varying definitions, Allen and Meyer's (1996) definition was the primary focus. It is "a psychological link between the

employee and his or her organization that makes it less likely that the employee will voluntarily leave the organization" (p. 252).

Affective Commitment. According to Meyer and Allen (1991), it is "the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization" (p. 67).

Continuance Commitment. According to Meyer and Allen (1991), it is "an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization" (p. 67).

Normative Commitment. According to Meyer and Allen (1991), it "reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment" (p. 67).

Employee Turnover. This is the process by which employees must be replaced due to the voluntary or involuntary departure of that employee (Cascio & Boudreau, 2008).

Employee Engagement. As stated by Erickson (2005), it "is about passion and commitment-the willingness to invest oneself and expend one's discretionary effort to help the employer succeed" (p. 14).

Faculty. Instructors employed full-time at an institution. For the purposes of this study, we examined only full-time, non-tenured instructors.

Community Colleges. Cohen, Brawer and Kisker (2014) define this as "any not-for-profit institution regionally accredited to award the associate in arts or the associate in science as its highest degree" (p. 5).

Degree of Urbanization. As defined by the National Center for Educational Statistics (2017), "a code representing the urbanicity (city/suburb/rural) by population size of the institution's location. This urban-centric locale code was assigned through a methodology developed by the U.S. Census Bureau's Population Division in 2005.

Chapter Two: Review of Literature

Introduction

Retaining strong performing employees can be a noted advantage for employers, if for nothing else than to maintain consistency in company outputs. As such, identifying enticements to keep those employees, other than the obvious and often elusive monetary rewards, correlates directly to that goal. Additionally, beyond the desire to simply retain an acceptable number of staff, employers also want employees fully engaged in the tasks they were hired to do. To that end, studies have been performed on job satisfaction (Abharwal & Corley, 2009; Bright, 2002; McBride, Munday, & Tunell, 2002), morale (Norman, Ambrose, & Hutson, 2006), and even cynicism (Barnes, 2010). Researchers have taken a variety of angles in attempting to determine why employees do what they do on the job, in the hopes of pinpointing not only why they leave the organization and how to retain them, but also how to maximize their productivity while on the job.

An effective way of facilitating the achievement of optimum employee outputs is to determine employees' level of commitment to the organization for which they work, as well as the factors that positively and negatively enhance that level. Organizational commitment has been studied in various streams of research (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Angle & Perry, 1991; Austin-Hickey, 2013; Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Becker, 1960; Farris, 2012; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; Staw, 1977; Weiner 1982), and while some have seen it as merely a product of job satisfaction (Abharwal & Corley, 2009; Bright 2002; Spencer, 1989), research has found it a much more complex construct (Meyer & Allen, 1990; Porter, Mowday, & Steers, 1982), which will be discussed further in this review. This concept has also been studied in various contexts, from executives and employees in business and industry (Clugston, 2000; Chuo, 2003; Dawley,

Stephens, & Stephens, 2005) to selected faculty and departments at research universities (Flynn, 2000; Gormley, 2005; Stengel, 1993), and is of significance to both managers and behavioral scientists. Although a general gauge of commitment correlates to increased productivity and low turnover, a closer study of this concept may identify the different facets of commitment and the subtle correlations between antecedents and observed outcomes (Hackett, 1994), which gives employers a more comprehensive understanding of the specific motivations behind an employee's involvement with the organization. Therefore, one must establish a context of how this mindset affects both retention and engagement in employees as a whole.

The role of a faculty member is unique in many ways. The daily schedule, job expectations, and workload are in a state of constant flux and influenced by a variety of internal and external factors. Although faculty are generally satisfied with their discipline of expertise and the notion of teaching itself (Rosser, 2004), many environmental factors outside of their primary job duty negatively influence their emotional attachment to their work, which makes organizational commitment a practical area of study, as it focuses on the state of this mindset. This enables administrators to recognize more specific mental factors influencing performance that could enable them to not only retain faculty, but also facilitate increased engagement.

This review will first examine an overview of the state of faculty, threats of turnover and decreased engagement, and factors such as class size, racial diversity, degree of urbanization (level-two variables) from the institutions themselves that impact commitment. Following that will be a discussion of the research on the components and effects of organizational commitment, in addition to the work of the major researchers in the field. Next, an overview will be provided on the impact of various demographic variables such as gender, age, tenure, etc. (level-one variables), as well as the use of organizational commitment to predict turnover and

engagement higher education. Finally, key takeaways from the literature that impact the current study will be discussed.

Overview of the State of Faculty

Characteristics of Community College Faculty. In attempting to define community college faculty, Thirolf (2015) found that the faculty themselves believed that teaching students, supporting students, caring about students, and serving their communities were central to their identity standard. The most obvious difference between community college faculty and their university counterparts is that of the sole focus on teaching, as the National Center for Education Statistics (2008) found that no community college faculty were devoted primarily to research. To that end, Eddy (2010) found that a desire to teach was at the root of their decision to teach at a community college, and the time spent doing so reflects that, as community college faculty teach 17.2 hours per week, compared to 11 hours per week in all other higher education institutions (Kozeracki, 2002). In regards to academic preparation, 62% hold a master's degree, 18% hold a doctorate, 13% hold a bachelor's degree, 4% hold an associate's degree, and 2% have less than an associate's degree (Hardy & Laanan, 2006). Although teaching is their primary job function, community college faculty are split on the purpose of that teaching, with 28% viewing workplace preparation as the most important mission and 27% viewing transfer as the most important mission (Brewer, 2000).

As such, Dickinson (1999) states that "community colleges face an increasingly complex environment that demands reconciling increased social obligations, rapid technological change, and public accountability with the reality of limited resources" (p. 23). This is the environment in which community college faculty works. They most importantly find themselves having to reconcile with a major shift in their primary job function: teaching. Barr and Tagg (1995) states

the previous task governing community colleges of providing instruction has shifted to the task of producing learning, which they claim changes everything for faculty. Since community colleges serve large number of students with diverse learning preferences, backgrounds, and levels of preparation, they find themselves having to develop smaller working environments to plan, provide, and monitor individual student learning (Davis, 1995). Secondly, according to Batson and Bass (1996) the ability of new technologies to not only provide more accessible information but also provide increased interaction between students and faculty requires community college faculty to adapt the educational experiences they provide to mesh with these delivery modalities. However, Gilbert (1996) states they face obstacles in the form of limited and inconsistent access to both equipment and software and the difficulty of adopting these technologies to current practices.

Importance of Faculty. With over 4,000 institutions of higher education in the United States that employ around half a million faculty (Jo, 2008), higher education instructors constitute a significant demographic. McBride et al. (1992) states that "the people of an organization are perhaps its most important resource. For a college this goes a step further, for the faculty *are* the college" (p. 158). To that end, Bowen and Shuster (1996) claim that the standard of excellence higher education maintains directly derives from the people it recruits and retains in the faculty ranks, and Matier (1996) states that recruiting quality faculty and retaining those already with the institution is of utmost importance in developing and maintaining quality programs. Additionally, Ryan et al. (2009) assert that "the quality of performance, and the persistence of faculty members play a central role in determining program quality and student learning and skill development" (p. 422). Therefore, maintaining a consistent faculty workforce

not only sustains performance, but maintains the excellence expected of institutions of higher education as well.

In examining how to achieve this consistency in faculty, Rosser and Townsend (2006) state that "the quality of faculty worklife is paramount to community college faculty members and thus has a strong and positive effect on their overall level of satisfaction" (p. 140). Bowen and Schuster (1996) explain that faculty are curious, want to feel competent, and will work hard if they feel they are making a contribution. They want to have a feeling of appreciation, have hope for the future because of their contributions, and have a sense of value from their colleagues and administrators. In addition, the faculty are a group of highly educated individuals passionately committed to their disciplines and desire to impart that knowledge through teaching, while at the same time grow their own knowledge and craft. In essence, in ideal conditions, faculty will have a strong emotional connection to their work. When this state is achieved, they will perform at a higher level. As such, Rosser (2004) states that the perceptions faculty possess on their worklife have a "direct and powerful impact on their morale" (p. 287).

However, according to the Ellucian Corporation (2016), forty seven percent of higher education institutions do not track or measure employee engagement, and thirty-nine percent of these institutions do not offer any type of engagement opportunities, such as leadership development or mentoring. Table 1 presents the studies conducted that show the various institutional variables that affect engagement and intent to leave, which will be discussed in detail in the following section of this review.

Table 1: Institutional variables affecting engagement and intent to leave

Subject	*Author/Year*	*Finding(s)*
Students	Agago (1995)	Unprepared and underprepared students affect engagement
	Boyer (1990)	Underprepared students affect engagement
	Firestone & Pennell (1993)	Class workload affects commitment
	Huberman (1993), Johnson (1990), Finn & Achilles (1990), Riehl & Sipple (1996), Monks & Schmidt (2011), CSU (2008)	Negative effects of high student numbers on faculty
Racial Diversity	Mueller et. al (1998)	Negative impact of student diversity
	Pettaway (2014)	Effects of disparity of ethnicities
	Niemann & Dovidio (1998)	Effects of occupational distinctivenes
	Wantanabe (2010)	Commitment varies by race
	Saharwal & Corley (2009)	Asians less satisfied than other races
Degree of Urbanization	High (1998)	Rural college pass rates lower than other institutions
	Hicks & Jones (2011)	Rural faculty take on more roles
	Eddy (2010)	Institutional environment affects faculty experience
	Hardy & Katsinas (2007)	Significant variations in enrollment
	Rossler (2006)	Significant variations in budgets

Turnover Threats and Impacts. According to McBride et al. (1992), a 1985 Carnegie Foundation survey of 5,000 faculty members at both two and four year institutions found that

40% of the respondents indicated they were considering leaving their positions within five years. This trend has continued almost thirty years later, with English (2012) finding that 65% of instructors have considered leaving their institution, and 45% have considered departing the profession altogether. While some claim that turnover can be beneficial in that it brings in new people with new skill sets and fresh perspectives, the negatives vastly outweigh the advantages in the form of "lost return on previous investment, disruption of research and teaching programs, discontinuity in student mentoring, as well as the monetary cost of recruiting and replacement and the time of other faculty diverted in the hiring process" (Jo, 2008, p. 575). To that end, turnover costs higher education institutions across the country 68 million dollars, due to "reduction of productivity, skill drain, and poor morale for the remaining employees" (Jo, 2008, p. 565).

Many of these feelings originate from issues within the institution. Jo (2008) found that faculty do not leave because of the "pull" of another offer from another employer; rather the "push" of internal factors at a faculty member's present institution makes an external offer seem more attractive, which causes them to not only weigh the costs of leaving, but also the strength of their obligation to stay with the institution. This can adversely affect an individual's emotional attachment to the institution. Although one may assume that salary is the most significant factor in a faculty member's decision to leave, research has shown otherwise. Xu (2008) claims that an answer on salary is elusive, even though other studies assert it is a critical factor, while other studies find conflicting results. In a study by Bright (2002), community college faculty's satisfaction with compensation was the least significant contributing factor in their overall job satisfaction. Most individuals who enter education realize beforehand that they

will not become wealthy; however, they do want to feel accomplishment and recognition, which is often more valuable than monetary rewards.

Engagement Threats and Impacts. Troy (2013) defined an engaged individual as "someone who is involved (beyond minimum responsibilities), has an understanding of responsibilities related to the organization's mission, and an overall feeling of well-being that relates directly or indirectly to work satisfaction" (p. 50). However, many factors in the worklife of a community college faculty member degrade those characteristics of engagement. Fugate and Amey (2000) state that although the primary focus of community colleges is on teaching, due to managing so many underprepared students, faculty report less satisfaction with students than four-year faculty. Taber (1997), in his study of professional development in community colleges in Alabama, found that although many institutions indicated they provided professional development for faculty, only ten percent indicated they attended two or more days of these activities, showing a lack of desire to be involved beyond minimum expectations. Cohen and Brawer (1989) found that while the intrinsic desire to teach motivated faculty, the extrinsic demands of institutional policies and administrative requirements diluted that desire. To that end, Rhoades (2012) stated that policy pushes to immediately increase community college productivity "can have the effect of triggering responses that reduce the faculty engagement central to enhancing student learning and attainment" (p. 9).

As such, a recent study by Cornerstone OnDemand (2016) "found that 52 percent of faculty were not engaged in their work, and that an additional 14 percent were actively disengaged" (p. 2). Overall, only 34 percent of faculty claimed they were actively engaged in their work. A further discussion of this poll discussed that an unengaged employee is not necessarily a bad worker, but he or she will only live up to minimum expectations, and will not

bring any extra energy or new ideas to the workplace, as the individual may remain with the organization simply out of obligation or necessity. Lack of engagement is also impacted by faculty who want to leave, but for a variety of reasons cannot. Daly and Dee (2006) claim that "an employee may remain in an organization even though structural expectations are not met and psychological attachment is low" (p. 779) because of either too few job opportunities or family responsibilities keep them from being mobile. The authors also state that having a faculty member who wants to leave but cannot will often produce more problems than if he or she were to actually leave. This is corroborated by Flaherty (2015), who claims that those actively disengaged are very vocal about their misery and spread it to others.

Decreased engagement may also act as a trickle down result of turnover. Jo (2008) states that if the employee that left had a close relationship with other employees, morale erodes as the remaining employees view that person as advancing, while they remain stuck in a position they now view as less desirable. This results in their making a shift from being with an institution because of an actual desire to being with the institution because they have no other choice. To that end, Maxey and Kezar (2016) state that institutional memory slowly fades away with constant turnover. As people continue to leave, the buy-in for the traditions of the institutions leave with them, which affects the overall focus on the mission of the college, as well as faculty's identification with it. They go on to claim that loss of productivity and effectiveness have more significance than monetary cost, as these hidden necessities are vital in propelling an organization forward.

External Impacts on Commitment. Faculty have to unavoidably face the expectations of external stakeholders. Baldwin and Chronister (2001) state that institutions face "a loss of public trust in terms of faculty accountability, criticisms of tenure, and challenges to traditional

faculty roles" (p. 13). Staley and Trinkle (2011) further claim that, although the general education curriculum has been a staple of colleges for decades, in today's global and competitive job market, job preparation has taken priority, making traditional education seem antiquated. Colleges have traditionally acted as the stalwarts of information, functioning in a very top-down method of relaying information from faculty experts to students. However, the notion of the "invisible college" asserts that the increasing availability of information and information-sharing at one's fingertips will require traditional curriculum and the means of relaying knowledge to change in order to maintain relevance in today's world. This requires faculty to not only work harder to stay abreast of changing knowledge in their field, but also adjust to the different learning preferences and environments in which they must function to stay relevant. Therefore, as faculty have a desire to identify with and attach to their discipline, the perception of falling behind current trends can adversely affect their commitment to what they do.

Additionally, economic factors faced by the institution often trickle down to directly affect faculty. Sheih (2009) claims that budget cuts, reducing the number of academic programs, and not replacing retired faculty have led to fewer people taking on more responsibility, which has resulted in higher anxiety and lower morale. According to Maxey and Kazar (2016), the reduction in government funding for higher education has resulted in the trend of hiring less full time faculty, and more contingent, or adjunct faculty. This has caused fewer job opportunities for full-time faculty, giving the perception that they cannot find additional opportunities beyond the one they currently have, which raises the notion that they are stuck in their current position. The percentage of institutional budget allocations for the academic mission and instruction has remained flat, leading to colleges and universities being expected to do more with less. This increase in the hiring of contingent faculty, who do not have the burden of many other internal

responsibilities, also increases demands on full-time faculty, often leading to burnout (Figueroa, 2015).

In addition, fluctuations in enrollment intensify this issue. According to Baldwin and Chronister (2001), enrollment in disciplines such as the humanities have seen a decline, while business and law have risen. Even more frustrating is fluctuation within a discipline. The number of computer science majors rose to unprecedented levels in the early 2000's, then experienced a sharp decline, and has now started to rise again. This has caused administrators to question their ability to make long-term hiring commitments (Maxey & Kezar, 2016), which obviously brings about uneasiness among the faculty, as many wonder not only whether their jobs will continue to be relevant or needed, but also causes many to question their significance and worth to the institution. All of these factors combined show that the level-two variables of the institution and all of the facets involved with its operation can have a marked impact, whether positive or negative, on employees' organizational commitment.

Student Impact on Commitment. The road to a faculty member becoming disengaged and, in some cases, abandoning their commitment and ultimately leaving originates from a variety of sources. The stress for faculty starts with the main task they were hired to perform: teaching. Simply managing community college students leads to considerable strain among faculty members. Boyer (1990) discussed the frustration of many faculty members due to teaching "academically under-prepared students in inadequate facilities, and with limited resources" (qtd. in Bright, 2002, p. 6). According to Agago (1995), preparing lessons is arduous and repetitive as a singular task, but faculty also have to contend with tutoring and advising unprepared and underprepared students who often seek and require considerable attention, as working with underdeveloped, non-traditional students that is a facet of most two-year

institutions' mission and vision. Working with students who often bring little to the table, knowing that these same individuals will evaluate them at the end of the semester, with those evaluations factoring into faculty members' overall evaluation, causes even more stress and strain.

In addition, the environment in which faculty carry out the task of teaching has shown to have a noted effect on commitment and performance. Firestone and Pennell's (1993) research of secondary schools indicated that reasonable teaching workloads were a significant resource that helped teachers, among other things, experience extrinsic rewards. However, Huberman (1993) claimed that the most common "enemy" to teacher motivation is the number of students faced each day (p. 42). Johnson (1990) and Finn and Achilles (1990) found that large class sizes with students of various levels of ability had a significant impact on teacher beliefs of their own effectiveness with those students. Also, Riehl and Sipple (1996), in their analysis of the National Center for Education Statistics 1988 survey of middle and secondary school teachers, found that having satisfactory class sizes appear to be associated with positive evaluations of their career choice. Additionally, they found teacher effort to decline as the total number of students increased.

This correlates to studies in higher education settings, where large class sizes have shown to have a noted impact on teacher performance. Monks and Schmidt (2011), in a multi-year study of business courses of various sizes, found that larger class sizes correlated with "less clarity in class presentations, less preparation, less enthusiasm, lower effectiveness in stimulating interest, less effective teaching methods, less adequate graded material, slower return of assignments, and less useful course materials" (p. 15). In addition, a 2008 study of faculty by California State University at Sacramento found that increases in class size have resulted in less

instructor-to-student interaction, increased challenges in classroom management, and increased teacher workload.

The ethnic makeup of the student population has also shown to have an effect on organizational commitment. Mueller et al. (1999), in their study of 1,482 public school teachers, found that white teachers in schools with mostly white faculty and white students had higher organizational commitment than white faculty teaching where white teachers and students were the minority. This was attributed to the contexts differing in student backgrounds, autonomy, resources, coworker support, and less role conflict. However, no differences existed among black teachers teaching in different ethnic contexts.

Especially challenging to faculty is the fact that to a large degree, student success remains beyond their control in many cases. If the student does not put in the work, despite the effort of faculty, he or she will still be unsuccessful. To that end, faculty feel intensive pressure to show they are doing everything in their power to ensure these same challenging students succeed. Thirty-two states, such as Arkansas, are moving or have already moved to performance-based models of funding (National Conference of State Legislatures, 2015) with formulas that heavily weight student success metrics. In addition, accrediting bodies have taken a stronger stance on assessment of student learning in their core standards (Higher Learning Commission, 2017; Accrediting Commission for Community and Junior Colleges, 2014; New England Association for Schools and Colleges, 2016). This leads faculty to feel as if not only their professionalism is under scrutiny, but also their status within the institution as well. Therefore, the primary job faculty perform can lead to commitment barriers within the institution.

Institutional Environment's Impact on Commitment. In evaluating the institution's impact on faculty, the actual location of the institution can present stressors. In a 1997 study of

community, junior, and technical college students in Texas, rural colleges performed significantly lower than urban and suburban colleges on the Texas Academic Skills Program Summary Test, with white students at rural colleges underperforming compared to minorities at urban and suburban colleges, which qualifies the challenge of teaching unprepared students. As a whole, university pass rates were higher than those at two-year institutions (High, 1998). Additionally, faculty at rural colleges are often asked to do more than those at larger institutions in urban areas. Interviews with rural community college presidents found that since rural institutions are limited in the number of support employees they can hire, faculty often must take on duties normally performed by support staff (Hicks & Jones, 2011). Eddy (2010) states that "the diversity of community college settings means that the environment (urban, suburban, rural) and size (large, medium, small) have an impact on the lived experience of faculty life in a two-year college" (p. 16). As a result, faculty in rural colleges tend to serve more roles and are smaller in number, and the curriculum is narrower than that in larger institutions. To that end, Hardy and Katsinas (2007) claim that small rural community colleges "differ from virtually from every other institutional type in a number of ways" (p. 15).

These differences among sizes in community colleges pose many additional challenges to faculty. In general, student enrollments are mostly evenly distributed among rural, suburban, and rural categories of community colleges. However, the average unduplicated headcount at rural colleges is 1,155 students, compared to 2,819 students at medium rural and 7,233 at large rural (Hardy & Katsinas, 2007). Rural colleges have more full-time students, with 41 percent, than suburban and urban schools, with 32 and 31 percent respectively. Budgets at rural colleges averaged $23.4 million in 2001, compared to suburban colleges at $50.2 and $102.4 at urban colleges, and an even larger disparity exists among rural community colleges, with small rural

averaging $9.9 million budgets, medium rural at $20.4 million, and large rural at $48 million (Roessler, 2006). This affects a number of factors for faculty, from class sizes to number of instructors to institutional resources.

Many studies (Messer, 2006: Spencer, 1989: Mattier, 1990: Norman, Ambrose, & Hutson, 2006) have found that faculty feel a strong need to belong to something bigger and interact with like-minded people with similar goals, strengthening their attachment to both the institution and its people. As such, Johnsrud and Rosser (2002) state that one of the most important predictors of faculty members' intent to leave is a lack of a feeling of community. To that end, the racial makeup of workgroups has been found to have a noted effect on this feeling. Pettaway (2014) found that African American faculty members employed at institutions with predominately white faculty tend to indicate low levels of commitment and higher intentions to leave. Niemann and Dovidio (1998) discovered that racial and ethnic minorities who have "occupational distinctiveness in academia" experience negative effects of that distinction (p. 66). To that end, Watanabe's (2010) survey of STEM faculty at a research-intensive research university found that organizational commitment significantly varied by race. White faculty had lower intentions to remain with the institution than nonwhite faculty, in addition to findings that nonwhite faculty indicated fewer friendships in their department compared than did white faculty. However, Sabbarwal and Corley (2009) found that African American faculty possessed equal, or more, job satisfaction than White faculty, with Asian faculty showing the lowest levels of satisfaction. To that end, Shuster and Bowen (1985) found that a segmented, dispirited faculty leads to faculty morale best being characterized as "shaky" (p. 15), which impacts the critical emotional and psychological attachment faculty need to have to their work. This causes those who want to stay with the institution to question if they ought or even need to remain.

Components and effects of organizational commitment

Overview of Organizational Commitment. In searching for solutions to the exodus of faculty from their position, the social sciences provide compelling solutions to the unique employee demographic in higher education. The obvious notion is that the more committed a person is to the organization, the less likely he or she is to leave (Meyer & Allen, 1990). Therefore, according to Katz (1964), organizations must develop among its employees a drive to go beyond the required tasks of the position, thereby establishing "strong feelings of psychological attachment to the organization" (p. 132). In addition, Mowday et al. (1979) claim that this type of attachment, or organizational commitment, consists of more than just loyalty; it involves an employee actively infusing effort into his or her role with the organization with the aim of directly improving its functions. If employees possess a reduced amount of organizational commitment, administrators will struggle to find ways to foster productive behaviors among these individuals (Mowday et al., 1982), which is why employers need to identify these levels of commitment in order to strengthen them.

Although the notion of organizational commitment has been analyzed in many studies, a consistent definition of the term is difficult to ascertain. Morrow (1983) states, "commitment has consumed an inordinate amount of researchers' attention without a commensurate increase in the understanding of its fundamental nature" (p. 498). This may be due to Allen and Meyer's (1990) belief that the differences in the various conceptualizations of organizational commitment involve such complex matters as the employee's psychological state, conditions leading to its development, and the behaviors one would assume to result from the commitment. However, despite its complexity, the nature of commitment itself has great value to an organization, as it significantly impacts employee behavior.

Porter, Mowday, and Steers' Conceptualization of Organizational Commitment.

Richard Mowday, Lyman Porter, and Richard Steers (1982) defined organizational commitment as "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization", and is characterized by "(a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values; (b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and (c) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization" (p. 27). In their analysis of eight studies on the commitment-turnover relationship, these researchers found reduced turnover as the most predictable outcome of organizational commitment. Therefore, on a basic level, increased organizational commitment results in lower levels of turnover, absenteeism, and tardiness. However, turnover can also affect operations, disrupt the effectiveness of initiatives, and halt special projects in some cases, affecting both employee attitude and behaviors, which further impact their commitment to the organization. Therefore, avoiding turnover, while helping evade all of the financial costs involved, also aids in avoiding the reduction in effectiveness of the employees who remain with the organization.

Although lack of commitment can negatively affect engagement, on the opposite side of the spectrum, it can be a positive catalyst. Porter et al. (1982) claim that when true commitment is achieved, it goes beyond passive loyalty to a level where employees sacrifice something of themselves to help the organization, making it much more significant than simply avoiding turnover. They state that "commitment emphasizes attachment to the organization, including goals and values" (p. 28). Therefore, one committed to the organization not only simply performs job duties, but also fully invests in the mission and purpose of the organization, making them more prone to exceed expectations.

Mowday et al. (1979) further assert that organizational commitment differs from job satisfaction, as satisfaction typically relies on changing job conditions, whereas commitment develops into something more stable over time. This is supported by DeCotiis (1987), who states that satisfaction simply correlates to the affective state of being committed, indicating commitment is the more useful construct to study. Additionally, although many researchers have viewed commitment attitude and behavior as separate (Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Weiner, 1982), Mowday et al. (1982) asserts that these two concepts are interrelated. Essentially, commitment behaviors lead to commitment attitudes, which result in strengthened commitment overall. Reciprocally, committing behaviors lead to stronger commitment attitudes, thereby supporting the notion that commitment is strongly related to both attitudes and behaviors. This correlates to Bowen and Shuster's (1996) research cited earlier in regards to faculty work attitudes. They want to be in a position with like-minded individuals and enabled to do work that makes a difference in their students' lives and in the environment of the institution, which directly impacts both their attitude and behavior.

Meyer and Allen's Three-Component Model. Although Mowday et al.'s research set the stage for deeper study of organizational commitment, it examined the phenomenon from a two-dimensional point of view, as it focused only on attitudinal and behavioral commitment. However, John Meyer and Natalie Allen identified organizational commitment as a three-component model, and this model contains both the antecedents and consequences of commitment, along with narrowing the concept into distinct yet interdependent areas (Clugston 2000). Meyer and Allen (1991), in their analysis of previous studies on commitment, found that common to all was the notion that "commitment binds an individual to an organization and thereby reduces the likelihood of turnover" (p. 993). Based on these findings, they draw the

conclusion that commitment "is a psychological state that (a) characterizes the employee's relationship with the organization and (b) has implications to continue or discontinue membership in the organization" (p. 67), which differs significantly from previous research characterizing organizational commitment as a behavior (Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Becker, 1960; Hall, 1977; Katz, 1964; Keisler, 1971). Meyer and Allen claim that organizational commitment consists of three areas: affective, continuance, and normative, which are *components* of organizational commitment, not *types*, as employees will experience all of these to some degree (Meyer & Allen, 1991). The three components are defined as follows:

- *Affective commitment* refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. Employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment with the organization because they *want* to do so.
- *Continuance commitment* refers to an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization. Employees whose primary link to the organization is based on continuance commitment remain because they *need* to do so.
- *Normative commitment* reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel that they *ought* to remain with the organization. (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 67)

To that end, while some of the studies examined in this literature review directly address and/or measure the three components of organizational commitment, other studies on faculty stress and morale display a noticeable correlation between the attitudes and behaviors that lead to reduced engagement and higher turnover and one or more of the components as well. A summary of these correlations is shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Studies correlating to the three components of organizational commitment

Component	*Correlating Studies*
Affective	Rosser (2004), Bowen & Shuster (1996), Jo (2008), Agago (1995), Johnsrud & Rosser (2002), Shuster & Bowen (1985), Gmelch Wilke & Lovrich (1984), Staley & Trinkle (2011), Katz (1964), Mowday et. Al (1982), Decotiis (1987), Macey & Schieder (2008), Ng & Feldman (2011), Flynn (2000), Messer (2006)
Continuance	Daly and Dee (2006), Baldwin and Chronister (2011), Becker (1960), Jo (2008), Harris (2012), Frauenhoffer (1998), Austin-Hickey (2013), Maxey and Kezar (2016), Sheih (2009)
Normative	Rosser (2004), Austin-Hickey (2013), Harris (2012), Chuo (2003), Malloy (1996)

Meyer and Allen (1991) argue that the focus of previous research primarily on turnover may be impractical, as organizational effectiveness requires much more than a consistent group of employees; these individuals must also have a willingness to go above and beyond minimum expectations, which correlates to previous research on engagement. Evaluating the different levels of commitment not only produces the ability to predict intent to leave, but also the ability to predict the behaviors exhibited while still with the company. To that end, the degree of employees' contributions will obviously be affected in that "employees who want to be in the organization (affective commitment) might be more likely than those who need to belong (continuance commitment), or feel obligated to belong (normative commitment), to exert effort on behalf of the organization" (p. 73-74), indicating the affective component is the most desirable. This correlates with the research on faculty, as the emotional attachment was found to be the ideal state in which they needed to work (Rosser, 2004). To that end, Allen and Meyer (1990) assert that these three components give significant insight into the employee-organization

link, and a more comprehensive understanding of that link is only achieved by delving into all three components as opposed to a broad overview of commitment in general. Therefore, while all employees may be committed in some form or fashion, knowing the level of commitment and the relation between the three components not only has the potential to prevent significant turnover, but also to foster a stronger level of effectiveness among the organization's workforce.

In addition, Meyer and Allen (1991) build upon Mowday et al.'s (1982) notion that the antecedents of affective commitment are characterized by personal characteristics, structural characteristics, job-related characteristics, and work experiences. This characterization supports the study of the broad influence of the impact of the institution. Affective commitment is essentially the ideal component of an employee's connection to the organization, as it measures how he or she is personally and emotionally invested in the organization. Studies analyzing faculty stress (Johnsrud & Rosser, 2002; Gmelch, Wilke, & Lovrich, 1984; Norman, Ambrose, & Hutson, 2006) have found this measure to have a noted impact on the worklife of faculty, as this component focuses on the individual's actual desire to remain with the organization and actively engage in his or her work. Meyer and Allen's (1997) review of meta-analytic studies show that demographic characteristics show significant, although often overlapping, evidence of the influence of age, tenure, and education on affective commitment. Additionally, the need for achievement, affiliation, autonomy, higher order need strength, personal work ethic, locus of control, and central life interest in work have shown strong correlations. Therefore, this strong link not only exists between the different components of commitment, but also between demographic and institutional characteristics.

The antecedents most commonly linked to continuance commitment are side bets and the availability of alternatives. Becker (1960) originated the notion of side bets, stating that

employees subconsciously make bets on their course of action on the job in the hopes they will positively pay off. For example, an employee can spend time being trained on company-specific skills that will not transfer in the hopes it will help him or her gain a promotion or a raise, knowing that those skills will more than likely be useless if he or she moves to another company. However, perceived costs vary widely between individuals. Nevertheless, studying both side bets and alternatives together has shown that when side bets or investments increase, and the availability or attractiveness of alternatives decrease, commitment thereby increases (Meyer & Allen, 1996). Therefore, in addressing this component, employers have to give employees a feeling of needing to stay, both for themselves and the organization. However, the research from Sheih (2009) and Maxey and Kezar (2016) indicates that faculty often feel that their role within the organization is ambiguous and therefore unimportant, that the need of their services is dwindling, or that simply too few job opportunities are available (Daly & Dee, 2006).

In analyzing normative commitment, Allen and Meyer (1991) claim that this can originate from societal and cultural expectations possessed before even being hired. Some employees, either through personal philosophies or familial impressing, hold to the notion that they should be loyal to a job simply because the employer hired them and pays them, leading to the belief of indebtedness to the employer. Normative commitment could also come from rewards given in advance, such as a company perhaps paying for the employee's college tuition or other relevant training. Both of these items can cause a person to feel an imbalance in the employee/employer relationship, causing him or her to stay until a feeling of retribution occurs. This can manifest itself in faculty, as Austin-Hickey (2013) claimed that certain faculty feel compelled to remain with an institution out of an obligation to their students.

Although these are unique components, they are linked to each other, though the nature of the link differs. For example, some employees may feel both a need and obligation to remain with an organization, yet lack the desire. Others may feel a desire, but not a need or obligation. That being said, one must evaluate and understand how these components all function together to determine the extent and nature of an employee's commitment. Allen and Meyer (1996) note that, for example, normative commitment will have more influence on the tone in which work is carried out as opposed to the quality or quantity of work performed. An employee may do good work, but may do it with resentfulness, which could lead to negative results in the future. This correlates with Flaherty's (2015) findings that actively disengaged employees spread their misery to others. On the opposite side, Meyer and Allen (1996) claim that employees displaying strong affective commitment are more likely to take on work beyond their roles and engage in more organizational citizenship, aligning with Bowen and Shuster's (1996) findings that faculty in an ideal environment are passionate and prone to work hard if they can see the impact of their contribution.

These interdependent links provide multiple layers to the study of this model, shown through the process of commitment in each of the components. First, Allen and Meyer (1996) state that since affective commitment indicates a psychological construct of equity and expectancy considerations, it will impact organizational behavior in many ways. Although the desire to maintain membership in an organization is obviously affected by environmental factors, the relationship between the two has not been driven by theory. Therefore, measuring affective commitment is the best estimate of how an employee will act in situations where doing the best for the organization is optimal. Meyer and Allen also suggest that the most obvious commitment development is in the continuance component, as anything that raises the perceived costs of

leaving the organization enhances this level. This is exacerbated by the feeling of necessity on the part of an individual with high continuance commitment, and has strong implications for his or her on-the-job behavior. Normative commitment, on the other hand, arises from how a person internalizes normative behaviors. This can be influenced by preconceived notions the employee has before getting hired, but it can also be influenced by an organizational culture that places more emphasis on team over the individual, yet again showing the strong influence of institutional organizational structure.

Further iterations of this study by Allen and Meyer (1990) supported the relationship with antecedent and consequence variables, most notably with affective and continuance commitment. They found work experiences that contribute to personal comfort and perceived competence most accurately predicted affective commitment, while investments and lack of alternatives predicted continuance commitment. Normative commitment was actually related to several antecedents of affective and continuance components. This again shows that commitment cannot be evaluated by a one-dimensional construct; it is multi-faceted, with each construct influencing the other.

Studies Implementing the Three Component Model. Subsequent studies have incorporated and affirmed the legitimacy of the three-component model, finding it reliable as well as useful in determining the state of the employee mindset. In examining the studies building on Allen and Meyer's work more specifically, Macey and Scheider (2008) found distinct correlations between affective commitment and engagement. They state that the notion of commitment being a psychological state is an antecedent of many highly relevant organizational outcomes. Additionally, these measures of the psychological state of commitment

"clearly fit with [their] approach to the operationalization of engagement as a psychological state" (8).

Likewise, Farris (2012) conducted a strict quantitative study on how the three components of organizational commitment related to job satisfaction. He tested to see whether or not Meyer and Allen's three component model was more effective than using models testing organizational commitment as whole. He found that using only the facets of the broad notion of organizational commitment, the predictability of job satisfaction was only 26.72%. However, when analyzing affective, continuance, and normative commitment, the predictability of job satisfaction raised to 47.96%.

Clugston (2000) found that job satisfaction and intent to leave were mediated simultaneously by the three components of commitment. He states that since the three types of commitment asserted by Meyer and Allen are not "mutually exclusive", an employee can experience all three types at the same time to some degree. He states that managers can find encouragement in the link between job satisfaction and the components of commitment, thereby positively affecting organizational outcomes (p. 484).

In examining specific workplaces, Chuo (2003), in a study investigating how components of organizational commitment led to burnout, analyzed seventy employees from a hotel chain in California. He found that normative commitment was a strong predictor of emotional exhaustion and cynicism among the workers. As the employees felt they had no other choice but to remain in this job, their normative commitment became stronger, making this type of study important for employers to predict and avoid these results in their employees.

In addition, Dawley, Stephens, and Stephens (2005) conducted a broad study of how Meyer and Allen's model applied to volunteer, as opposed to paid, workers. They studied 616

members from 116 chambers of commerce in 36 states. They found that focusing on the three components in this scale was even applicable to volunteers, and that the focus on this commitment led to positive outcomes in members defining and executing their roles. These studies are just a sample of how the three-component model has provided insight into turnover and decreased engagement threats. Additionally, it has provided insight into the faculty mindset as well.

Demographic influences on the three component model. Literature also supports the use and reliability of individual demographic characteristics as predictors for organizational commitment. Ethnicity has been discussed in previous sections of this review, and further findings are summarized in Table 3 and discussed in the following section, as well as referenced throughout this review.

Table 3: Findings of the effects of demographic variables on organizational commitment

Author/Date	*Demographic Variable*	*Findings*
Kaiser (2005)	Age	Faculty from the boomer and thirteenth generations showed higher commitment
Messer (2006)	Age	Faculty aged 21-35 showed the lowest commitment, faculty with 16-36 years of organizational tenure had the highest commitment
Frauenhoffer (1998)	Age, organizational tenure, occupational tenure, gender	Age, organizational tenure, and occupational tenure impacted commitment over time. Females showed more commitment than males
Gormley (2005)	Age	Younger faculty with low organizational tenure had low levels of commitment
Engle (2010)	Age, Education level	Demographics were reliable predictors of organizational commitment
Austin-Hickey (2013)	Education level, occupational tenure	Both demographics affected organizational commitment
Stengel (1983)	Gender	Females showed more commitment than males, faculty who believed that leadership was trying to bring about change and that progress was being made were more committed than their peers
Malloy (1996)	Gender	Organizational commitment is affected by the gender makeup of work groups
Short (2013)	Gender, organizational tenure	No effect
Flynn (2000)	Organizational tenure	Positive correlation with affective commitment, no difference in discipline or gender in regards to normative and continuance commitment
Hill (1984)	Organizational tenure	No effect
Ng & Feldman (2011)	Organizational tenure	Affective organizational commitment increase until ten years of service, then decreased
Xu (2008)	Discipline taught	Directly affects turnover rates
Hill (2014)	Discipline taught	Faculty outside of general education are more committed
DeRosa (2000)	Discipline taught	Faculty in certain disciplines more committed and effective than others

Frauenhoffer (1998) examined age and tenure as moderators of gender differences in organizational commitment. In her study of high school teachers, she found that those with less organizational tenure had higher levels of affective commitment, while those with more organizational tenure had higher levels of continuance commitment, showing that time with the

organization affects the motivation behind one's decision to remain with the organization. She also found that age, organizational tenure, and occupational tenure affected the relationship between gender and continuance commitment, showing that the demographic variables' interaction with one another significantly impacts the level of commitment to an organization. In addition, women had higher overall levels of commitment, and each component of commitment increased with age, organizational tenure, and occupational tenure. In an additional study on length of tenure, Ng and Feldman (2011) conducted a meta-analysis of 40 studies on organizational commitment. They found that affective commitment strengthened from the date of initial hire until ten years of service. Interestingly, after that point, it began to decline.

In a gender-specific study, Malloy (1996) examined organizational demography, or the influence of gender makeup of workgroups. He found that males in male-dominated workgroups and females in female-dominated workgroups showed higher levels of organizational commitment across all components. In addition, while males and females exhibited similar levels of organizational commitment in mixed-gender workgroups, levels across all components dropped when males and females were in opposite gender workgroups. More specifically, in same-sex workgroups, normative commitment was the highest of the three components. The author indicated that this may have resulted from these groups feeling more cohesive, therefore feeling they ought to remain for the good of the group.

The type of discipline taught by the faculty member has also been shown to affect turnover and organizational commitment. Xu (2008) found that "the major factors related to faculty turnover have systematic patterns that are unique to discipline clusters" (p. 56). Her study revealed that specific disciplines directly impact faculty's values and concerns, which in turn directly affect their turnover intentions. Therefore, she asserts that a study on faculty

without including discipline-specific information can lead to misleading results. To that end, Hill (2014), in a study of adjunct faculty, found that organizational commitment was higher for those in specific disciplines such as business, as opposed to faculty who taught general education curriculum courses. DeRosa (2000), examining teachers at ten high schools in New York, found that commitment was a significant predictor of effectiveness in the science, social studies, and history departments, but not in the English department.

Organizational commitment in higher education

While studies within higher education have focused on various facets of commitment, the focus and environments covered in the research vary considerably. However, most have incorporated the framework established by either Mowday, Porter, and Steers, or Meyer and Allen. Synopses of the most relevant studies are included below.

Hill (1984) researched the job attitudes of developmental education faculty of public two-year community colleges in New York State. More specifically, he analyzed the relationships between self-role and tenure, job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and voluntary turnover intention. He found that organizational commitment played a pivotal role in the propensity to leave or remain with the institution, with self-role congruence and the relationship between a person's ideal self and his or her actual behavior as having an impact on higher and/or lower levels of commitment. Interestingly, length of service had no impact on organizational commitment; however, the author was using a dated model.

Flynn (2000) analyzed a random sample from full-time faculty in twelve pharmacy programs across the country, with the majority of respondents being doctorally educated. He sought to test the generalizability of Meyer and Allen's model by examining two sets of antecedents and two sets of hypothesized behavioral outcomes. The results showed that affective

commitment was the strongest influence on organizational behavior, with socialization predicting both normative and affective commitment. The results additionally showed no support for variance between commitment and faculty work. Number of years with the institution showed a positive correlation with affective commitment; however, no differences were found related to discipline or gender in regards to normative and continuance commitment. Nevertheless, the commitment variables accounted for 37% of the variance in turnover intention. Overall, the results did support the continued use of the three component model, while at the same time showing the need for more research in the areas of faculty commitment. This shows that the study of the three components of faculty commitment not only provides a base knowledge for establishing the levels of faculty commitment, but also acts as a springboard for further research into improving and strengthening these levels.

Gormley (2005) examined the influence of organizational climate, role conflict and ambiguity, and work/role balance in organizational commitment and turnover in Carnegie Doctoral/Research Nursing Universities. Her sample was 316 full-time tenure track doctorally-prepared nursing faculty. She found that all three components of organizational commitment correlated negatively with role conflict and ambiguity. Additionally, organizational climate correlated positively with all three components. She also found that younger faculty who had not been with the institution for a long time displayed lower levels of commitment. However, important to note is that the study examined turnover intent as the only consequence of organizational commitment. Nevertheless, as previously stated, not having a clear picture of one's role within the institution has been an expressed source of stress in faculty work life. Therefore, gauging and addressing organizational commitment within one's institution can help guide administrators to implement strategies to alleviate this stress.

In research conducted with community college faculty, Stengel (1983) used secondary data from a literacy study that included questions on the attitudes of 235 full-time faculty from multiple campuses in Arizona, focusing on work perceptions. The study analyzed faculty commitment to administratively defined goals such as retention, serving new students, and developmental education. Using the framework of Porter, Mowday, and Steers, she found that faculty involved in institutional organizations, faculty who perceived the leadership was actively working to bring change, and faculty who perceived progress being made were more committed than their peers. The author also examined the personal demographics of gender, age and education, with gender resulting as the only significant variable, as females displayed more commitment than males. She suggested that increasing opportunities for faculty to observe administrators working toward goals and opportunities for faculty involvement would increase the organizational commitment in an institution.

Kaiser (2005), in her study of generational differences, analyzed the mature, boomer, thirteenth, and millennial generations in a sample of 213 employees at Kirtland Community College in Michigan. She found a significant statistical difference between the four generations, and to that end, found that they could be differentiated by the levels of organizational commitment each one holds. She found higher commitment level for the faculty from the boomer (1943-1960) and the thirteenth (1961-1980) generation. She asserts that his provides a base for further research on professional development for different levels of employees, as well as strategies for varied opportunities for engagement.

Short (2013) examined the relationship between clan culture, leader-member exchange, and affective organizational commitment. Clan culture is the notion that an organization functions like an interdependent family, and the leader-member exchange focuses on the

dynamic relationship between the leader and his or her subordinates within an organization. The researcher took a random selection of 474 employees in various levels of the organization at a community college in the Southeastern United States. She found the relationship for these areas, along with the affective component, to be statistically significant, and recommended that organizations use this information to begin creating an organizational profile. However, unlike other studies, she found no statistical difference for gender, years of service or employment status. Even so, this shows not only that the components of Allen and Meyers' model, even when used with other constructs, can be significant predictors of employees' psychological states, but also that research done in higher education needs more studies to establish consistency in the results.

Messer (2006) conducted a study of a random sample of employees, from full-time faculty to middle and upper-level administrators to classified staff at Tulsa Community College. She examined several predictor values: organizational communication, participation, the perception of organizational support, and organizational commitment, as they relate to the concept of resistance to change. Her hypothesis that those who registered a high level of affective organizational commitment would score low on the resistance to change measurement was proven true. This shows the correlation between organizational commitment and effectiveness of the implementation of institutional initiatives. In addition, respondents aged 21-35 years scored lowest on affective commitment, and the group representing employees with 16-36 years with the organization scored the highest. In addition, faculty scored the highest mean on affective commitment.

Engle (2010) focused her study on organizational commitment on the differences between full-time and adjunct faculty in community colleges in North Carolina. Her dataset was

a survey sent to 26 community colleges in the state. Not surprisingly, the results showed that all three components of organizational commitment were higher for full-time faculty. Additionally, organizational support, extrinsic rewards, and age, could reliably predict organizational commitment from both groups. Age showed statistically positive correlations, while institution size was a negative influence, and interestingly, extrinsic rewards were found to negatively impact organizational commitment in adjunct faculty. These results show that even with part-time instructors, feeling a part of the institution is more important than extrinsic rewards (i.e. financial incentives) in determining the level of commitment to the institution and its mission.

Austin-Hickey (2013) examined organizational commitment focusing specifically on developmental math faculty in community colleges in Florida. The study incorporated both quantitative and qualitative methods, and found that affective commitment increased with full-time status and years of experience, but decreased when the faculty held outside employment. Additionally, normative commitment was strong in that faculty felt obligated to help students, and years taught positively affected continuance commitment. There were no differences based on age; however, age positively correlated with degree, years of experience, and employment status, which all affected organizational commitment. The author believed this study could help administrators create an optimal work environment to enable faculty to work towards the institution's mission. Since instructors of developmental courses deal with some of the most challenging educational situations, this study shows promise in the benefits of using organizational commitment in achieving buy-in from even some of the most stressed faculty members.

Conclusion

In conclusion, faculty teaching at community colleges are tasked with many responsibilities, the most important of which is educating students. However, while the job of teaching itself presents many stressors, factors outside their primary responsibility compounds the stress they experience. Based on the literature chronicling issues facing faculty, many institutional-level impacts deserve attention for further investigation. While faculty consistently display a strong desire and motivation to educate students throughout these studies, many institutional factors adversely affect their organizational commitment. These stressors have been shown to increase the likelihood of faculty propensity to leave, as well as decreasing their engagement in the basic task they are hired to perform. In addition, individual demographic factors have consistently shown to impact an employee's level of commitment across the three components. These findings show that across many different institution types, a distinct correlation exists between each one of the components of commitment and the demographic characteristics identified, with some areas, such as age and organizational tenure being consistent, while other areas, such as gender and disciplines taught, vary in their findings. This shows these variables of commitment ripe for more study, as further study is needed in higher education. Specifically, little research has been conducted on this area in community colleges in general, and no studies have been conducted in the state of Arkansas.

As such, the factors impacting organizational commitment of faculty can be grouped into two levels of predictors: level-one, individual; and level-two, institution. The most frequently researched predictors are summarized below in Table 4.

Table 4: Predictor levels of organizational commitment

Predictor Level	Factor	Correlating Studies
Level One – Individual	Age	Messer (2006), Kaiser (2005), Frauenhoffer (1998), Gormley (2005), Engle (2010)
	Race/Ethnicity	Mueller et al. (1998), Pettaway (2014), Niemann & Dovidio (1998), Wantanabe (2010), Saharwal & Corley (2009)
	Gender	Frauenhoffer (1998), Stengel (1983), Malloy (1996), Short (2013)
	Organizational Tenure	Frauenhoffer (1998), Short (2013), Flynn (2000), Hill (1984), Ng & Feldman (2011)
	Occupational Tenure	Frauenhoffer (1998), Austin-Hickey (2013)
	Discipline Taught	Xu (2008), Hill (2014), DeRosa (2000)
Level Two – Institution	Degree of Urbanization	High (1998), Hicks & Jones (2011), Eddy (2010) Hardy & Katsinas (2007), Rossler (2006)
	Student to Faculty Ratio	Huberman (1993), Johnson (1990), Finn & Achilles (1990), Riehl and Sipple (1996), Monks & Schmidt (2011), CSU (2008)
	Racial Diversity	Mueller et al. (1998), Pettaway (2014), Niemann & Dovidio (1998), Wantanabe (2010), Saharwal & Corley (2009)

The demographic information has been consistently shown to provide not only reliable predictors, but can also be easily translated into practical application for administrators. By asking participants to identify their institution, we will be able to account for institutional differences without creating a burdensome survey. This will also allow us to identify institutional differences, including identifying the degree of urbanization, student to faculty ratio, and racial diversity through publicly accessible information, beyond the individual variables.

In examining these impacts in relation to faculty and the three components of organizational commitment, the affective component is obviously the most desirable of the three, so faculty rating high on the continuance and normative components are firstly cause for concern. Interesting to note in the research is that the desire to feel a part of a community is very strong for faculty, and this feeling is directly addressed through measuring an employee's level of affective commitment. Therefore, gauging whether or not affective organizational commitment varies among institutions will be a strong indicator that this feeling is not being met. Secondly, research consistently reveals that commitment is low for younger individuals who are new to the organization, but is stronger for older individuals who have been with the organization for a long period of time. It would be important to discover at what time (age, number of years with the organization) this switch occurs, in order to research further to determine why this occurs at that time. Also, the research is varied on the type of commitment possessed by younger, inexperienced individuals and older, experienced individuals. Knowing how and when each component progressed to another would enhance further study in the area, as it would help pinpoint factors that affect that progression.

In addition, most research indicates that females are more committed than males. The only consistent impact on this has been found in the compilation of workgroups. However, knowing whether or not commitment among genders varies between institutions can suggest a college's organizational structure, which may provide clues to why a variance occurs. Discovering the differing levels of commitment between males and females can help provide an insight into the factors mitigating the commitment or lack thereof. Finally, anecdotally it can be assumed that certain subject matters, such as English or Math, would be more difficult to teach based on workload and propensity for students to struggle. While minimal research has been

conducted here, identifying which disciplines have lower commitment would be an obvious area for administrators to apply their efforts, as these groups are already developed within the organization. Therefore, the interaction between the components of commitment, demographic variables, and institution will provide unique insights into the employee mindset, which will give administrators an advantageous perspective and starting point in addressing faculty commitment.

Chapter Three: Methodology

This study incorporated a survey of faculty in all 22 community colleges in Arkansas in order to determine the demographic factors that most strongly predict organizational commitment. The components of Allen and Meyer's Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS) (2002) were used for the first part of this methodology, with demographic questions accounting for the remainder of the variables in the survey. Meyer and Allen's questionnaire has been tested multiple times for both reliability and validity, making it a legitimate tool for this research. Participants also identified the institution for which they are currently employed. In addition, the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS) from the National Center for Education Statistics determined the degree of urbanization, student-to-faculty ratio, and racial diversity of each institution to determine if these variables either directly affected levels of organizational commitment or acted as moderators. Details of the specifics of this study will be discussed in the following sections.

Research Design

This study used quantitative methods to determine the level of organizational commitment of each respondent. This is consistent with social science research, beginning with Porter, Mowday, and Steers' (1982) study of two components of commitment using their Organizational Commitment Scale, which posed a series of 15 questions that respondents rated on a 7-point Likert scale. Decottiis and Summers (1987) developed a questionnaire to assess participants' perceptions of their company's structure, process, and climate, in addition to assessing variance of these perceptions in light of demographic characteristics. Blau and Boal (1989) developed two surveys posing questions using a 5-point Likert scale to determine how job involvement and organizational commitment predicted turnover. Additionally, Meyer and Allen

(1990, 1991, 1997, 2002) used their organizational commitment scale to measure the three components of organizational commitment. While some studies have included qualitative questionnaires and interviews (Austin-Hickey, 2013), the quantitative measures of organizational commitment have undergone multiple tests for validity and reliability that allow for the possibility of generalizing the population.

Hierarchical multiple regression analyses were used to determine how individual demographic factors contributed to the variation in organizational commitment while accounting for the influence of institutional factors. Meyer and Allen (1990) developed three distinct components of organizational commitment, rather than analyzing it as one broad concept. The demographic factors of each of the individual participants were analyzed against each component of organizational commitment to gauge which demographic factors were the strongest predictors of organizational commitment by component. In addition, three random intercept models determined if these factors varied between institutions. In all, three nested models (one for each component of organizational commitment) were constructed. Additionally, a multilevel model was constructed to determine whether the level-2 variables of degree of urbanization, student-to-faculty ratio, and racial diversity explained the variance between institutions. Further, in following the best practice recommendations set forth by Aguinis, Gottfredson, and Culpepper (2013), we estimated the cross-level interaction effects to determine whether or not a community college's racial/ethnic diversity interacted with a faculty member's race/ethnicity to moderate its relationship with organizational commitment.

This will show whether the racial/ethnic diversity of the institution influences the relationship between the faculty member's race/ethnicity and their level of organizational commitment.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

This study examined how individual demographic variables predict faculty's levels of affective, continuance, and normative organizational commitment, while accounting for variation between institutions. It also examined how institutional variables contributed to this variation, and how select institutional variables moderated the relationship between some level-1 variables and organizational commitment. The demographic and institutional variables were the independent variables, with the components of organizational commitment (affective, normative, and continuance) serving as the dependent variables. The following research questions and hypotheses guided this study:

QI: **Variation between community colleges.** Does organizational commitment vary across faculty in community colleges? (H1: Organizational commitment will vary across faculty in community colleges.)

Q2: Level 1 Predictors and Affective Commitment. Which individual factors predict faculty members' level of affective organizational commitment?

- (H2: Age: Based on research by Kaiser (2005), Messer (2006), Frauenhoffer (1998), Gormley (2005), and Engle (2010), affective organizational commitment will increase with age in faculty in community colleges in Arkansas.
- H3: Gender: Based on research by Frauenhoffer (1998), Stengel (1983), Malloy (1996), and Short (2013), females will display higher levels of affective organizational commitment than males in faculty in community colleges in Arkansas.
- H4: Race: Based on research by Mueller et al. (1998), Pettaway (2014), Niemann & Dovidio (1998), Wantanabe (2010), and Saharwal & Corley (2009), white faculty will display more affective organizational commitment than non-white faculty.

- H5: Occupational Tenure: Based on research by Frauenhoffer (1998) and Austin-Hickey (2013), as occupational tenure increases, so will affective organizational commitment in faculty in community colleges in Arkansas.
- H6: Disciplines Taught: Based on research by Xu (2008), Hill (2014), and DeRosa (2000), the type of discipline taught will affect the level of affective organizational commitment in faculty in community colleges in Arkansas.
- H7: Organizational Tenure: Based on research by Frauenhoffer (1998), Flynn (2000), Hill (1984), and Ng and Feldman (2011), affective organizational commitment will increase with organizational tenure in faculty in community colleges in Arkansas.

Q3: Level One Predictors and Normative Commitment. Which individual factors predict faculty members' level of normative organizational commitment?

- (H8: Age: Based on research by Kaiser (2005), Messer (2006), Frauenhoffer (1998), Gormley (2005), and Engle (2010), normative organizational commitment will increase with age in faculty in community colleges in Arkansas.
- H9: Gender: Based on research by Frauenhoffer (1998), Stengel (1983), Malloy (1996), and Short (2013), males will display more normative organizational commitment than females in faculty in community colleges in Arkansas.
- H10: Race: Based on research by Mueller et al. (1998), Pettaway (2014), Niemann & Dovidio (1998), Wantanabe (2010), and Saharwal & Corley (2009), white faculty will display more normative organizational commitment than non-white faculty.
- H11: Occupational Tenure: Based on research by Frauenhoffer (1998) and Austin-Hickey (2013), normative organizational commitment will increase with occupational tenure in faculty in community colleges in Arkansas.

- H12: Disciplines Taught: Based on research by Xu (2008), Hill (2014), and DeRosa (2000), the type of discipline taught will affect the level of normative organizational commitment in faculty in community colleges in Arkansas.
- H13: Organizational Tenure: Based on research by Frauenhoffer (1998), Flynn (2000), Hill (1984), and Ng and Feldman (2011), normative organizational commitment will increase with organizational tenure in faculty in community colleges in Arkansas.

Q4: Level 1 Predictors and Continuance Commitment. Which individual factors predict faculty members' level of continuance organizational commitment?

- (H14: Age: Based on research by Kaiser (2005), Messer (2006), Frauenhoffer (1998), Gormley (2005), and Engle (2010), continuance organizational commitment will decrease with age in faculty in community colleges in Arkansas.
- H15: Gender: Based on research by Frauenhoffer (1998), Stengel (1983), Malloy (1996), and Short (2013), males will show more continuance organizational commitment than females in faculty in community colleges in Arkansas.
- H16: Race: Based on research by Mueller et al. (1998), Pettaway (2014), Niemann & Dovidio (1998), Wantanabe (2010), and Saharwal & Corley (2009), white faculty will display more continuance organizational commitment than non-white faculty.
- H17: Occupational Tenure: Based on research by Frauenhoffer (1998) and Austin-Hickey (2013), continuance organizational commitment will decrease with more years of occupational tenure in faculty in community colleges in Arkansas.
- H18: Disciplines Taught: Based on research by Xu (2008), Hill (2014), and DeRosa (2000), the type of discipline taught will affect the level of continuance organizational commitment in faculty in community colleges in Arkansas.

- H19: Organizational Tenure: Based on research by Frauenhoffer (1998), Flynn (2000), Hill (1984), and Ng and Feldman (2011), continuance organizational commitment will increase with more years of organizational tenure in faculty in community colleges in Arkansas.

Q5: Level 2 predictors and organizational commitment. Do community college variables help explain the variability of organizational commitment among community colleges? Based on research by Agago (1995), Boyer (1990), Firestone & Pennell (1993), Huberman (1993), Johnson (1990), Finn & Achilles (1990), Riehl & Sipple (1996), Monks & Schmidt (2011), CSU (2008), Mueller et al. (1998), Pettaway (2014), Niemann & Dovidio (1998), Wantanabe (2010), Saharwal & Corley (2009), High (1998), Hicks & Jones (2011), Eddy (2010), Hardy & Katsinas (2007), and Rossler (2006), the following hypotheses will be made:

- H20: Degree of urbanization, student-to-faculty ratio, and racial diversity will affect levels of affective organizational commitment of faculty in community colleges in Arkansas.
- H21: Degree of urbanization, student-to-faculty ratio, and racial diversity will affect levels of normative organizational commitment of faculty in community colleges in Arkansas.
- H22: Degree of urbanization, student-to-faculty ratio, and racial diversity will affect levels of continuance organizational commitment of faculty in community colleges in Arkansas.)

Q6: Level 2 factors interaction with level 1 factors. Does the relationship between faculty's race/ethnicity and organizational commitment vary as a function of the racial/ethnic makeup of the school?

Based on research by Mueller et al. (1998) and Pettaway (2014), the following hypotheses will be made:

- H23: The racial diversity of an institution will moderate the relationship between a faculty member's race and his or her level of affective organizational commitment.
- H24: The racial diversity of an institution will moderate the relationship between a faculty member's race and his or her level of normative organizational commitment.
- H25: The racial diversity of an institution will moderate the relationship between a faculty member's race and his or her level of continuance organizational commitment.)

Publically accessible information from IPEDS will be used to determine the following: Degree of Urbanization: This is defined as "a code representing the urbanicity (city/suburb/rural) by population size of the institution's location. This urban-centric locale code was assigned through a methodology developed by the U.S. Census Bureau's Population Division in 2005" (National Center for Education Statistics ,2017).

The following are the codes used:

11 City: Large

12 City: Midsize

13 City: Small

21 Suburb: Large

22 Suburb: Midsize

23 Suburb: Small

31 Town: Fringe

32 Town: Distant

33 Town: Remote

41 Rural: Fringe

42 Rural: Distant

43 Rural: Remote

For the purposes of this study, the degree of urbanization for each community college was assigned a score on a scale from 1 to 12, with 1 being rural remote, and 12 being a large city, ranking each one from least populated to most populated. This promoted a model that was be more interpretable and useful.

Student to Faculty Ratio: This is defined as "the ratio of FTE students to FTE instructional staff, i.e., students divided by staff" (National Center for Education Statistics, 2017). Since these are measured as number of students to one staff, for the purposes of this study, these will be categorized on a continuous scale by number of students. For example, if an institution has a 12:1 student to faculty ratio, they will be categorized as a 12 on this scale.

Race/Ethnicity of Students: This is defined as "categories developed in 1997 by the Office of Management and Budget (OMB) that are used to describe groups to which individuals belong, identify with, or belong in the eyes of the community. The designations are used to categorize U.S. citizens, resident aliens, and other eligible non-citizens" (National Center for Education Statistics, 2017).

Individuals are asked to first designate ethnicity as:

- Hispanic or Latino or
- Not Hispanic or Latino

Second, individuals are asked to indicate all races that apply among the following:

- American Indian or Alaska Native
- Asian

- Black or African American
- Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
- White

For the purposes of this study, these variables followed the best practices set forth by Mueller et al. (1998), Saharwal and Corley (2009), and Wantanabe (2010) and categorized as either White or Nonwhite. This helped the model's interpretability and ease of use, by dividing it into two distinctive categories as opposed to multiple ones.

Selection of Subjects

The participants for this study were all full-time faculty from each of the 22 two-year community colleges in the state of Arkansas. For the purposes of this study, only full-time faculty employed as of 2015 (in correlation with the most recent data accessible by the state of Arkansas) were studied. Part-time, or adjunct faculty, and full-time staff were excluded. The community colleges currently operating in Arkansas are as follows:

Arkansas Northeastern College
Arkansas State University Beebe
Arkansas State University Mid-South
Arkansas State University Mountain Home
Arkansas State University Newport
Black River Technical College
College of the Ouachitas
East Arkansas Community College
National Park College
North Arkansas College
North West Arkansas Community College
Ozarka College
Phillips Community College of the University of Arkansas
South Arkansas Community College
Southeast Arkansas College
Southern Arkansas University Tech
University of Arkansas Community College at Batesville
University of Arkansas Community College at Hope/Texarkana
University of Arkansas Community College at Morrilton
University of Arkansas Cossatot

University of Arkansas Pulaski Technical College
University of Arkansas Rich Mountain

Of these institutions, eleven (Arkansas Northeastern, Black River Technical, College of the Ouachitas, East Arkansas Community, National Park, North Arkansas, Northwest Arkansas, Ozarka, South Arkansas, Southeast Arkansas, and Southern Arkansas University Tech), operate independently with their own board of trustees, while the remaining institutions function underneath a larger university system by which they are governed. The institutions further vary by size, with Pulaski Technical College being the largest with a student population of 9,236, and Rich Mountain Community College being the smallest with a population of 1,005 (Arkansas Department of Higher Education, 2015). Information from the Arkansas Department of Higher Education IPEDS data puts the number of faculty in community colleges in Arkansas as of 2016 at 1,373.

Instrumentation

This study used the Three Component Model (TCM) Employee Commitment Survey, developed by John Meyer and Natalie Allen (2004) (see Appendix A). This survey asked participants to respond using a 1-7 Likert scale from “Strongly Disagree” to “Strongly Agree” (See Appendix A). There are six questions for each component of organizational commitment: affective (ACS), continuance (CCS), and normative (NCS). This scale has been tested for internal reliability; according to Garson (2016), internal reliability is a measure of whether or not items within a test intended to measure similar constructs actually produce similar results. The TCM survey has produced a median reliability for ACS at .85, for CCS at .79, and NCS at .73 (Allen & Meyer, 1996). According to Garson (2016), a .60 median is considered acceptable for exploratory purposes, a .70 median is considered adequate for confirmatory purposes, and a .80

median is considered good for confirmatory purposes, showing the survey to be used as internally reliable. In addition, test-retest reliabilities timed at 1, 6, and 12 months post entry showed .66, .61, and .73 for ACS, .71, .63, and .72 for CCS, and .61, .62, and .73 for NCS (Allen and Meyer, 1996). According to Garson (2016), a .70 median is considered valid in this measure, and in the case of this survey, the validity increases over time. Factor analyses of all variables within this survey conducted by Allen and Meyer (1990), Allen and Meyer (1991), McGee and Ford (1987), Dunham and Grube (1990), Hackett et al. (1994), Somers (1993), and Vanderberge (1996) have supported the construct validity actuality of the three distinctive components of this model. Construct validity has also been confirmed by studies in non-Western countries (Cheng & Stockdale, 2001).

The survey contained an additional section requesting demographic information such as age, gender, race, years of experience, subject matter expertise, and years with the institution. These questions, in correlation with those on organizational commitment, helped determine the factors that most strongly predict the level of organizational commitment of the respondents. In previous studies, an increase in age has been shown to consistently predict higher organizational commitment (Kaiser, 2005; Messer, 2006; Frauenhoffer, 1998; Gormley, 2005; Engle, 2010). In addition, both organizational and occupational tenure have been identified as strong predictors of increases in organizational commitment over time in varying degrees (Frauenhoffer, 1998; Austin-Hickey, 2013; Short, 2013; Flynn, 2000; Hill, 1984; Ng & Feldman, 2011). Gender has also emerged from the research as a predictor of organizational commitment, with females tending to show more overall commitment than males (Stengel, 1983; Malloy, 1996; Short, 2013; Frauenhoffer, 1998). A faculty person's race/ethnicity has also been found to predict her or his organizational commitment (Mueller et al., 1998; Pettaway, 2014; Wantanabe, 2010;

Niemann & Dovidio, 1998), although this relationship is moderated by the CC's racial/ethnic makeup (Pettaway, 2014; Niemann & Dovidio, 1998; Wantanabe, 2010; Saharwal & Corley, 2009). Finally, the discipline taught by the faculty member has also been shown to be a factor in the variance of organization commitment between faculty (Xu, 2008; Hill, 2014; DeRosa, 2000). The demographic questions can also be found in Appendix A.

Data Collection Procedures

The survey was distributed to full-time faculty in all 22 community colleges in Arkansas. A list of names and email addresses were obtained through the employee directory from each community college's website. Through the use of Survey Monkey, the researcher sent an email describing the study, requesting participation, and providing a link to the instrument. This email is provided in Appendix C.

Survey Monkey's software collected the IP address of each participant to avoid duplication, therefore identifying non-respondents, allowing follow-up emails to be sent to all non-responders at the one, two, and three-week point. Each individual was be again provided a link to the online survey through Survey Monkey, along with information about the survey and a request to complete the survey as soon as possible. Once the survey closed, the results from all collected surveys were entered into a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet and saved on a secure network for further analysis and interpretation.

Data Analysis for Questions or Objectives

Once the data collection was completed, it was imported into SPSS. Then, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was used to determine the relationship between the demographic variables and each of the components of organizational commitment. First, three scale scores were calculated for each respondent for each component of commitment using the sum of scores

for questions 1-6 (affective), questions 7-12 (normative), and questions 13-18 (continuance), which was used to measure the strength of their commitment in each component. These were then used to create the variables of affective, normative, and continuance commitment. The demographic components of age, occupational tenure, and organizational tenure served as continuous variables in order to have more concise data to measure. Additionally, disciplines taught were grouped into Arts and Humanities, Math/Science, Business, Technical/Career, Developmental, and Other, which were dummy coded for analysis. The respondents chose which category applied under each question. This can be seen in the survey in Appendix B.

Next, a Levene's test was conducted to ensure the assumption of equal variances had been met, as well as a Shapiro-Wilk's test to ensure normal distribution. For each component of organizational commitment, an unconditional random intercept model was constructed to determine if responses varied between institutions. Regression coefficients were calculated for each variable. T-tests then determined if regression coefficients differed from zero. To ensure the assumptions of multiple regression have been met, P-P Plots were analyzed to test whether the normality of the residuals had been violated. In addition, scatterplots were analyzed to ensure the assumption of homoscedacity had been met, as well as to ensure the relationship between the independent and dependent variables is linear. Finally, VIF values were interpreted to ensure the absence of multicollinearity. A random intercept model determined whether organizational commitment varied across faculty across community colleges. Then all level-1 predictors (individual demographic information of faculty) were inserted to determine which predicted components of organizational commitment. In the next step, the level-2 predictors (institutional characteristics of degree of urbanization, student-to-faculty ratio, and racial/ethnic diversity) were added to determine whether or not they predicted components of organizational

commitment. Next, a randomly varying slope was created for race/ethnicity of faculty before adding a cross-level interaction with race/ethnicity of institution to determine race/ethnicity of faculty affects organizational commitment.

Limitations of the Study

This study only analyzed the strength of the demographic predictors of organizational commitment. This study did not analyze any other measures of job satisfaction. While other studies have incorporated this information, the information collected here simply examined commitment on an individual level. Specific questions on why a faculty member is committed in a certain way was not included in this study, as seeking the exact component an individual favors most strongly provided significant information that determined whether or not further study is needed.

Chapter Four: Study Findings

The purpose of this study was to determine the predictors of organizational commitment in community college faculty in Arkansas. This chapter discusses the findings pertaining to each of this study's six research questions and 25 hypotheses. Specifically, this chapter discusses data collection methods, demographic data, data collection analysis, tests for normality and variance, and results for affective, normative, and continuance organizational commitment. Finally, outliers and reliability and validity of the analyses are discussed, after which a summary is provided.

Data Collection Methods

The survey was sent to 1,289 faculty members in all 22 community colleges in Arkansas. It contained Meyer and Allen's Three Component Model Organizational Commitment survey and seven demographic questions. The survey was disseminated through Survey Monkey, with reminders sent every week for three weeks. After three weeks, 351 faculty responded. Responses were then transferred from Survey Monkey to Excel to average the scores and later transfer them into SPSS. Each component of organizational commitment had a maximum score of 42. Thirty participants were eliminated through listwise deletion, as those particular individuals failed to answer all of the questions concerning organizational commitment. Meyer and Allen (2004) indicated these can result in suspect scores that should not be interpreted. This resulted in a total sample size of 321 (n=321), a 25% response rate.

After calculating averages, responses were coded and entered into SPSS. Categorical responses for gender, race, disciplines taught, school, racial diversity, and degree of urbanization were numerically coded. Age, occupational tenure, and organizational tenure were mean-centered for to allow for meaningful interpretation of the intercept.

Demographic Data

Mean age of the participants was 49.88 (*SD*=11.43). In all, 176 were female (54.8%), 123 were male (38.3%), and 21 preferred not to answer (6.5%). For race, 270 were white, 26 preferred not to answer, 6 were Black or African American, 5 were American Indian or Alaska Native, 5 were Other, 4 were Hispanic or Latino, and 3 were Asian. Frequencies are shown below in Figure 1.

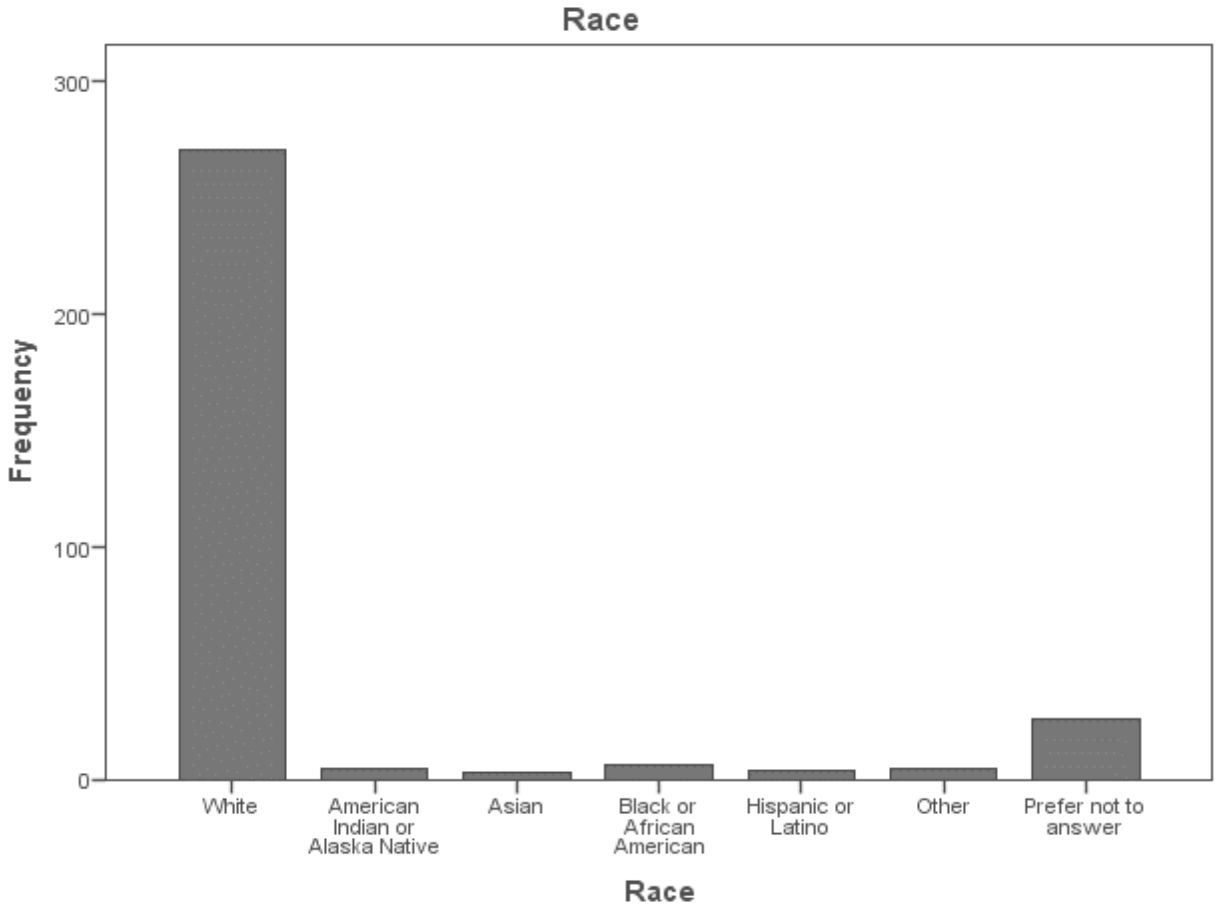

Figure 1: Race Frequencies

Mean number of years in the occupation was 13.80 (*SD*=9.19), and the mean number of years with the organization was 10.77 (*SD*=8.06). For discipline taught, 78 taught Math and Science,

75 taught Arts and Humanities, 73 taught Other, 66 taught Technical, 22 taught Business, and 4 taught developmental. Frequencies for disciplines taught are in Figure 2.

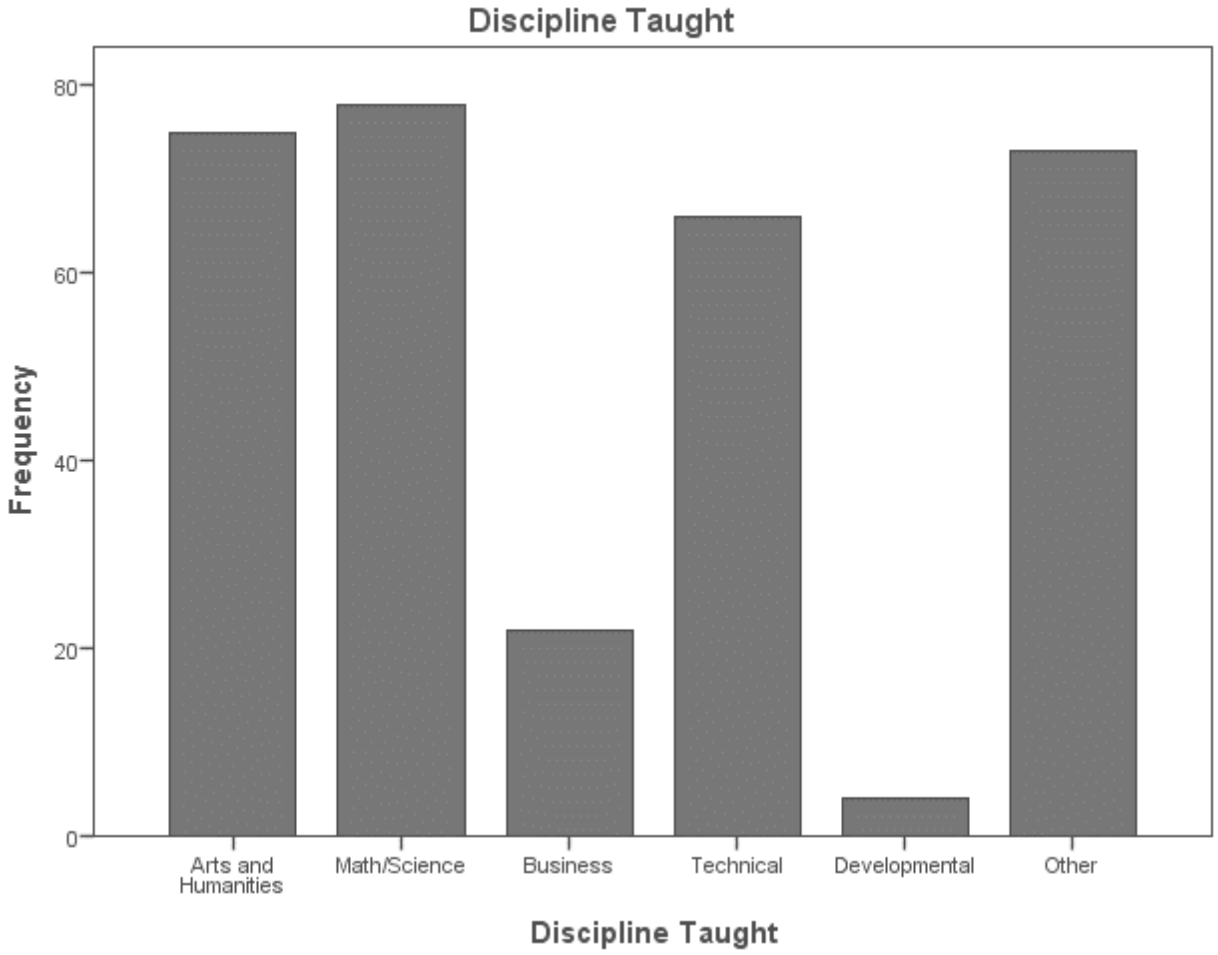

Figure 2: Disciplines Taught Frequencies

For institution, 34 stated they work at Northwest Arkansas Community College, 27 at National Park College, 24 at Pulaski Technical College, 24 at North Arkansas College, 20 at Arkansas State University Beebe, 20 at Arkansas State University Newport, 18 at Arkansas State University Mountain Home, 17 at the University of Arkansas Community College Batesville, 17 at the University of Arkansas Morrilton, 16 at South Arkansas Community College, 16 at Black River Technical College, 16 at South Arkansas Community College, 14 at the University of

Arkansas Community College Cossatot, 10 at Arkansas State University Mid-South, 10 at Ozarka College, 9 at Southern Arkansas University Tech, 7 at College of the Ouachitas, 6 at the University of Arkansas Community College Hope/Texarkana, 6 at Arkansas Northeastern College, 5 at the University of Arkansas Community College Rich Mountain, 5 at East Arkansas Community College, and 3 at Phillips Community College. Frequencies are in Figure 3.

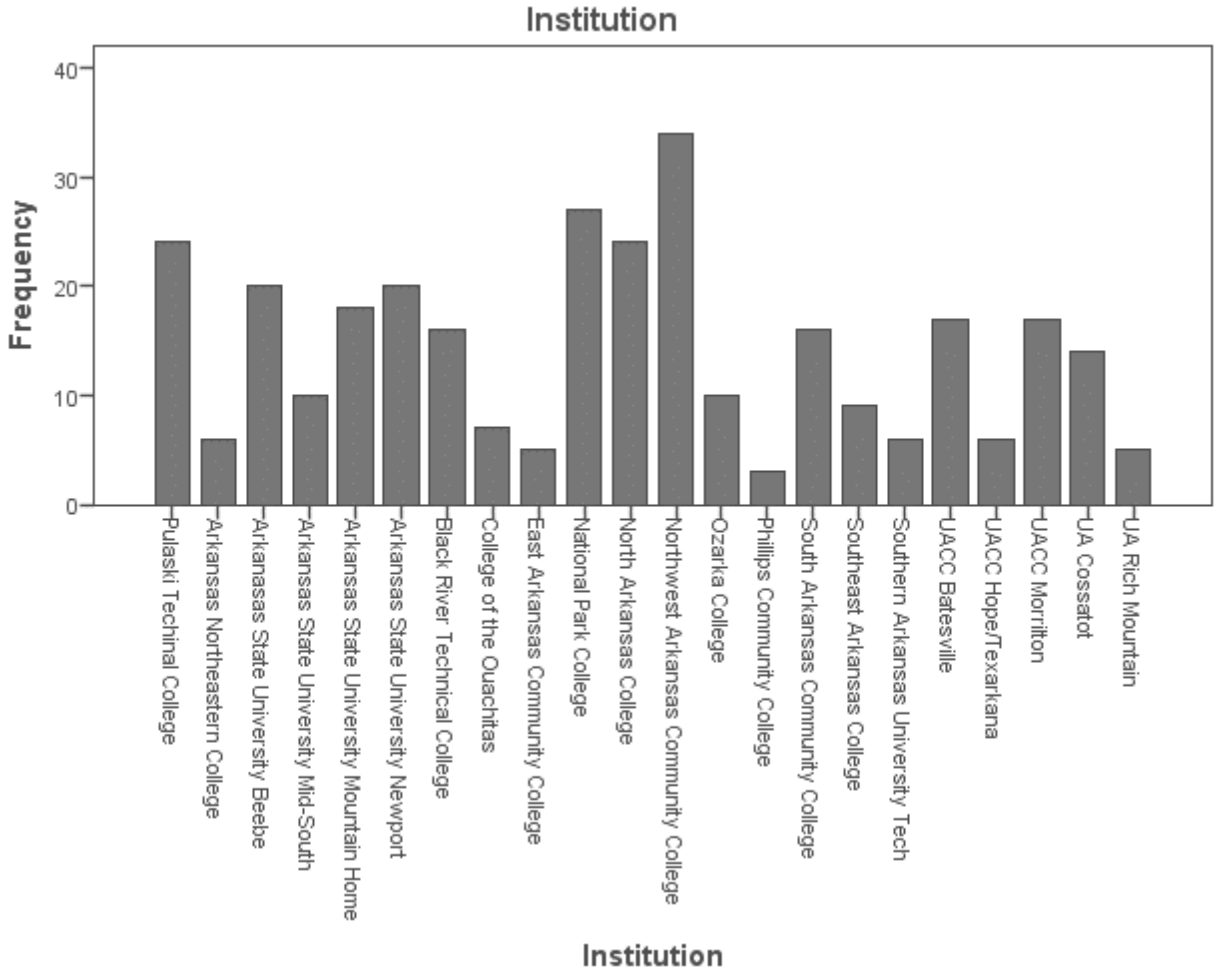

Figure 3: Institutions

Most faculty were from an institution categorized as City Small (65), whereas 62 were from an institution categorized as Town Remote, 57 from an institution categorized as Rural Fringe, 28 from an institution categorized as Town Distant, 27 from an institution categorized as

Suburb Small, 27 from an institution categorized as Town Fringe, 26 from an institution categorized as Rural Distant, 12 from an institution categorized as Rural Remote, and 10 from an institution categorized as Suburb Large. The frequencies for degree of urbanization are in Figure 4.

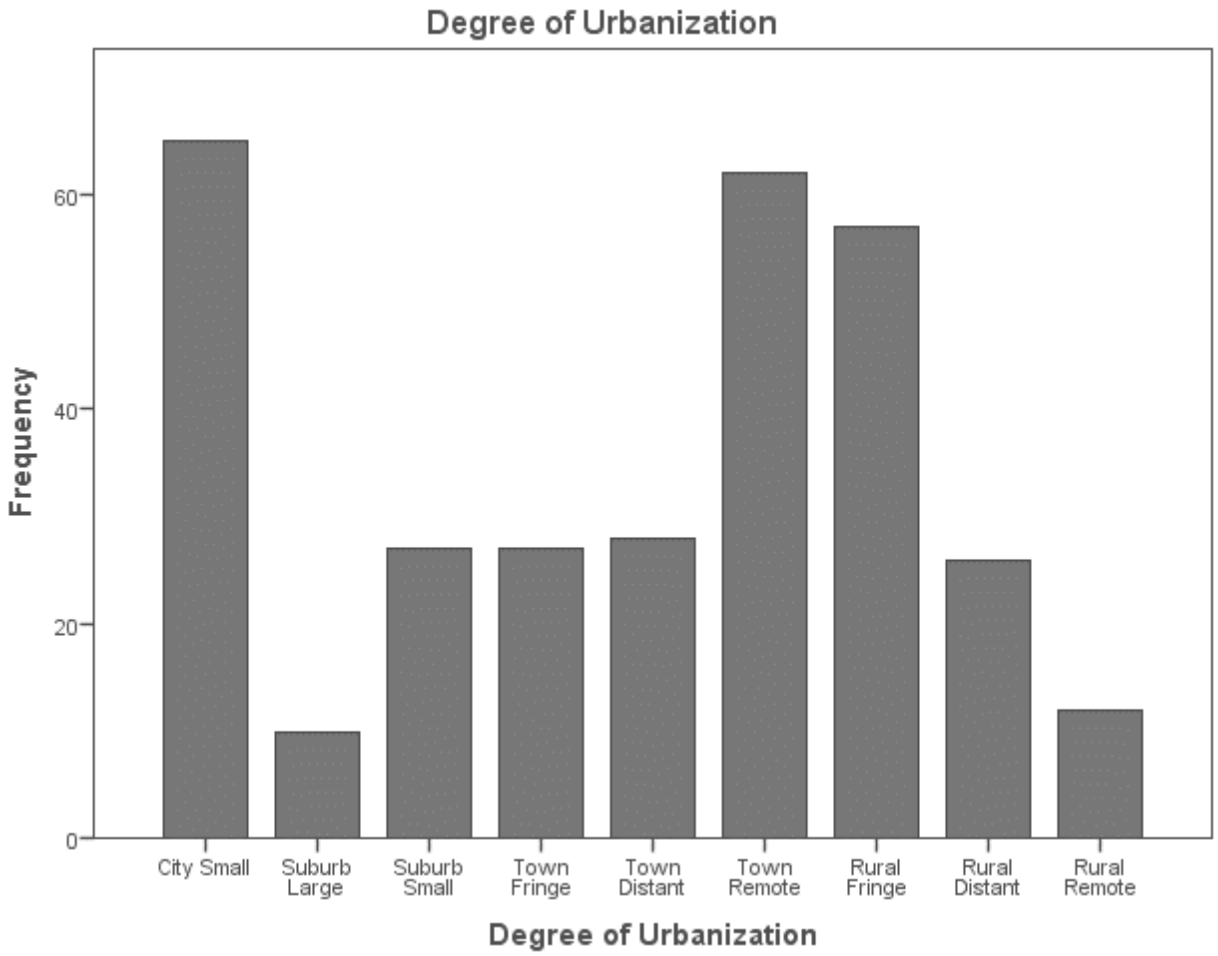

Figure 4: Degree of Urbanization

In addition, 269 (83.8%) were from a predominantly white institution, whereas 45 (14%) were from a predominantly nonwhite institution. For affective commitment, the mean score across institutions was 31.81 (*SD*=8.09), for normative commitment the mean score was 23.73 (*SD*=8.78), and for continuance commitment the mean score was 27.21 (*SD*=8.44).

Test Methods and Results for Normality and Variance

To test whether the assumptions of equal variances was met for all level-1 categorical predictors, a one-way ANOVA was conducted on each outcome. For continuous level-1 predictors, simple linear regression models were run to test the assumption of homoscedasticity by examining standardized residuals by standardized predicted values plots.

Variance Test Results

The Levene's test for affective commitment for disciplines taught ($F(5, 312)=.653$, $p=0.659$), gender ($F(2, 317)=.913$, $p=0.402$), and race ($F(2, 316)=.828$, $p=0.743$) all showed that the homogeneity of variance was not violated. Scatterplots for the continuous predictors age, occupational tenure, and organization tenure are in Figures 5, 6, and 7.

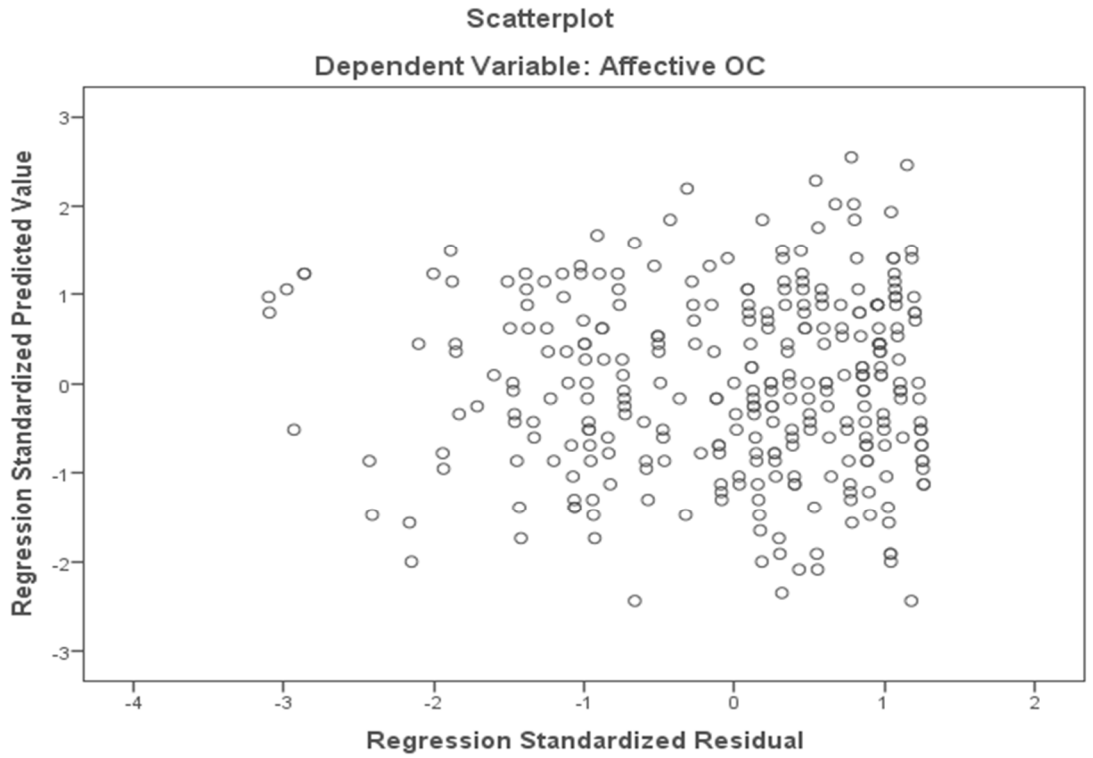

Figure 5: Variance between Age and Affective Organizational Commitment

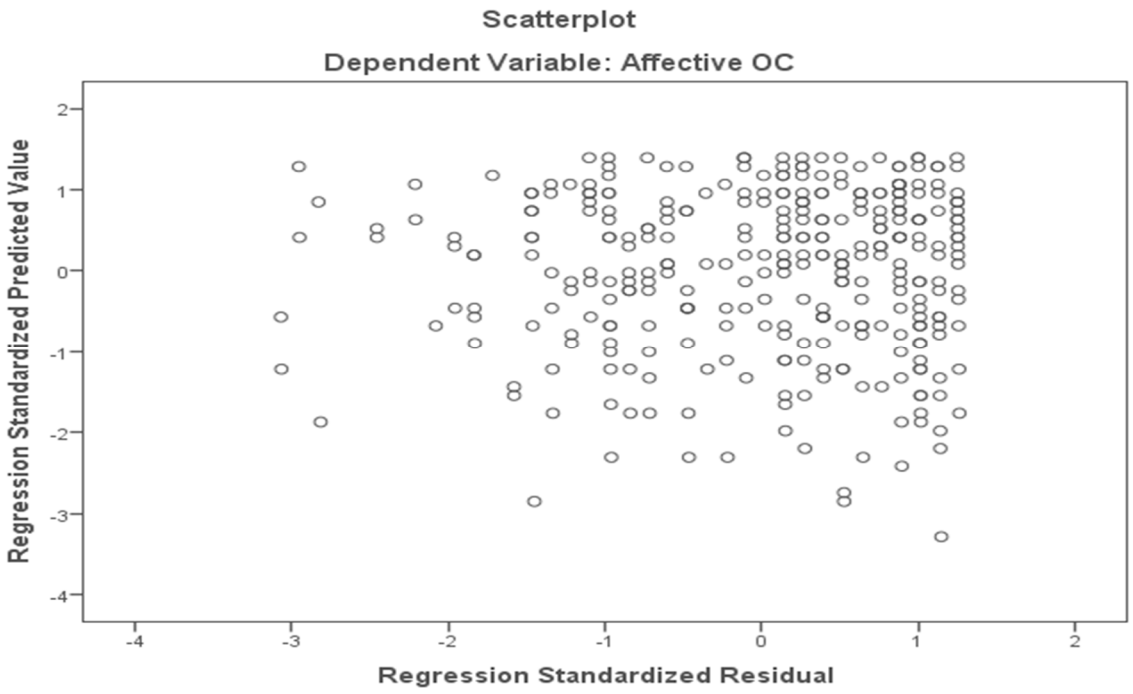

Figure 6: Variance Between Occupational Tenure and Affective Organizational Commitment

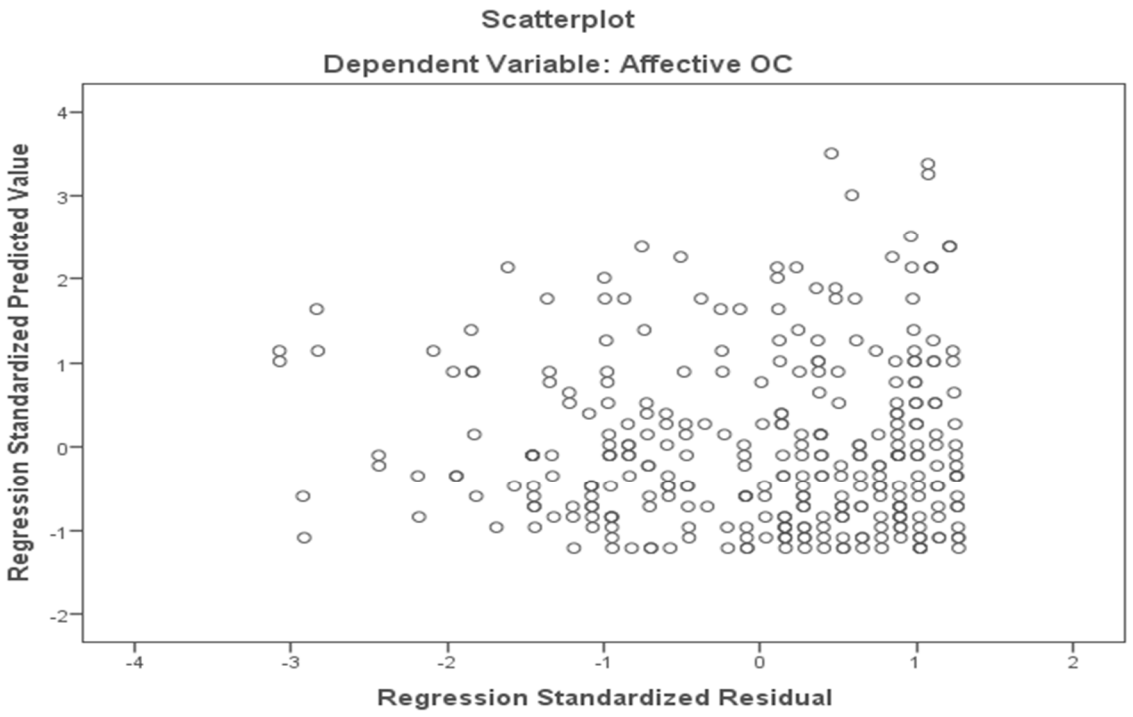

Figure 7: Variance Between Organizational Tenure and Affective Organizational Commitment

Visual inspection of the Zres and Zpred plots for these continuous variables show that they are not equally distributed, so the assumption of homoscedasticity has been violated.

For continuance commitment, disciplines taught ($F(5, 312)=.818$, $p=0.538$), gender ($F(2, 317)=1.155$, $p=0.316$), and race ($F(2, 316)=.065$, $p=0.633$) all also showed the homogeneity of variance was not violated. Scatterplots for age, occupational tenure, and organizational tenure are shown in Figures 8, 9, and 10.

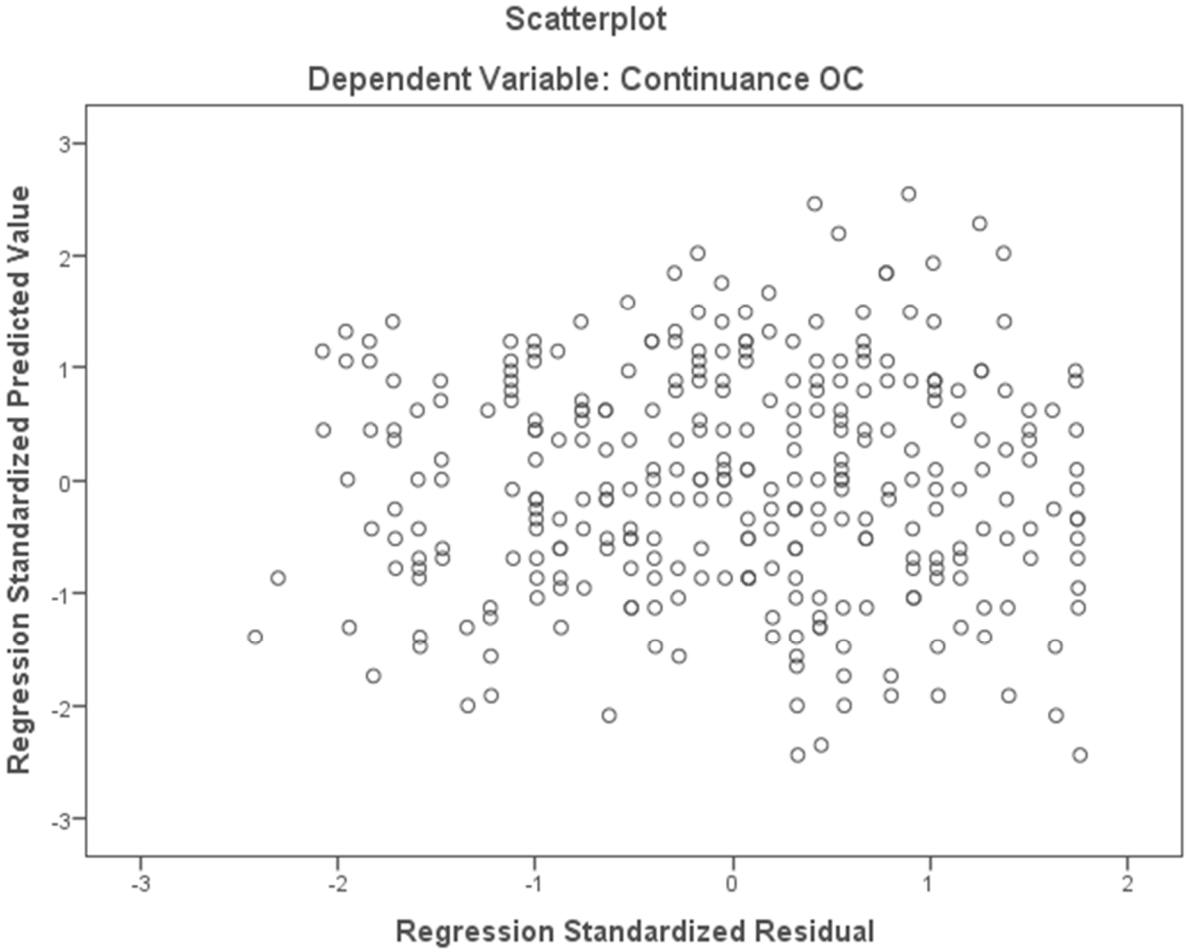

Figure 8: Variance Between Age and Continuance Organizational Commitment

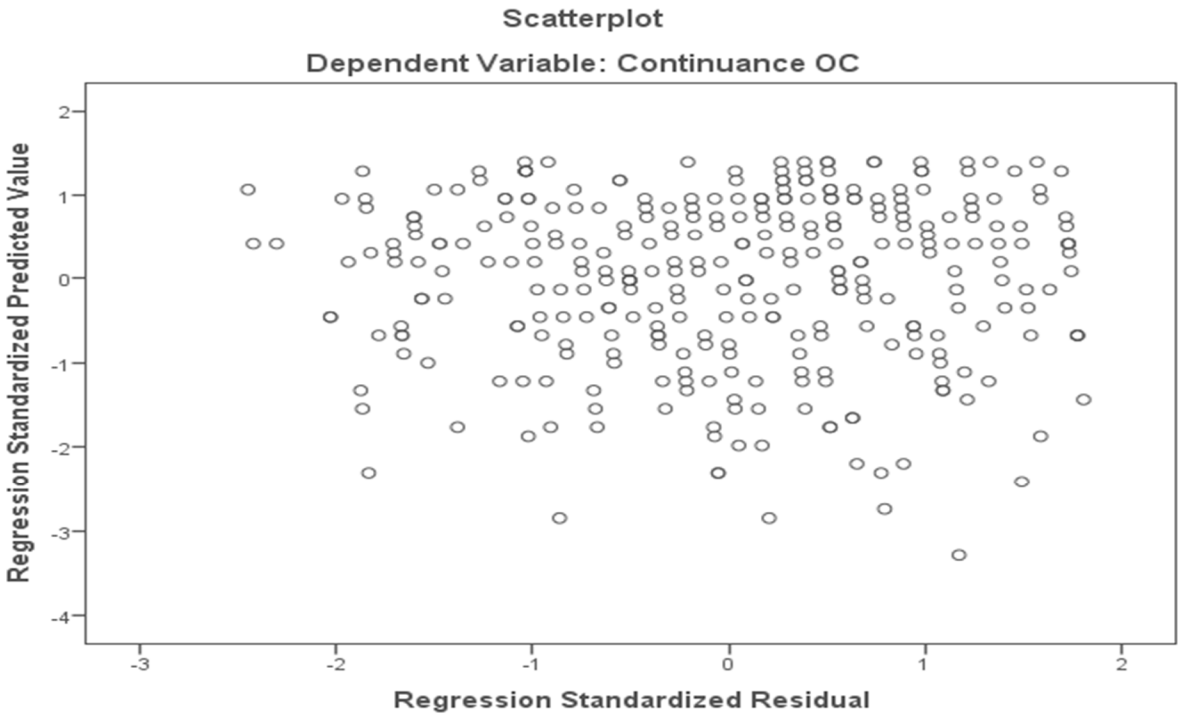

Figure 9: Variance Between Occupational Tenure and Continuance Organizational Commitment

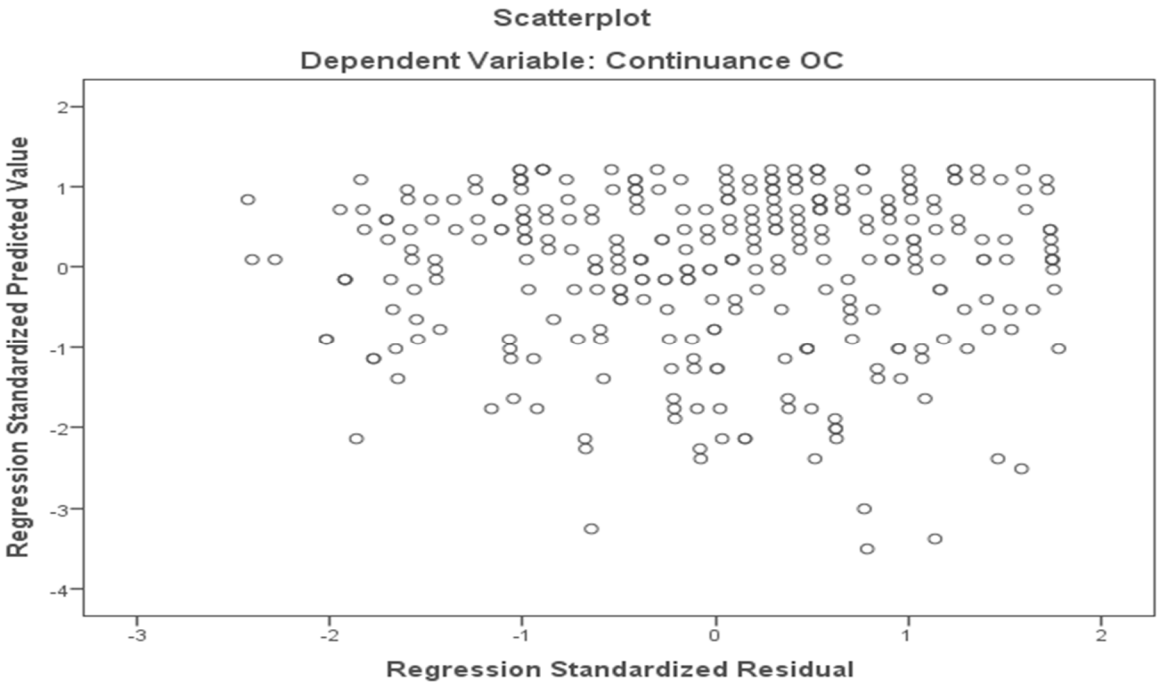

Figure 10: Variance Between Organizational Tenure and Continuance Organizational Commitment

Visual inspection of the Zres and Zpred plots for these continuous variables show that they are equally distributed, so the assumption of homoscedasticity has not been violated.

For normative commitment, disciplines taught ($F(5, 312)=.355$, $p=0.879$), gender ($F(2, 317)=.463$, $p=0.630$), and race ($F(2, 316)=.776$, $p=0.642$) all showed the homogeneity of variance was not violated. Scatterplots for age, occupational tenure, and organizational tenure are shown in Figures 11, 12, and 13.

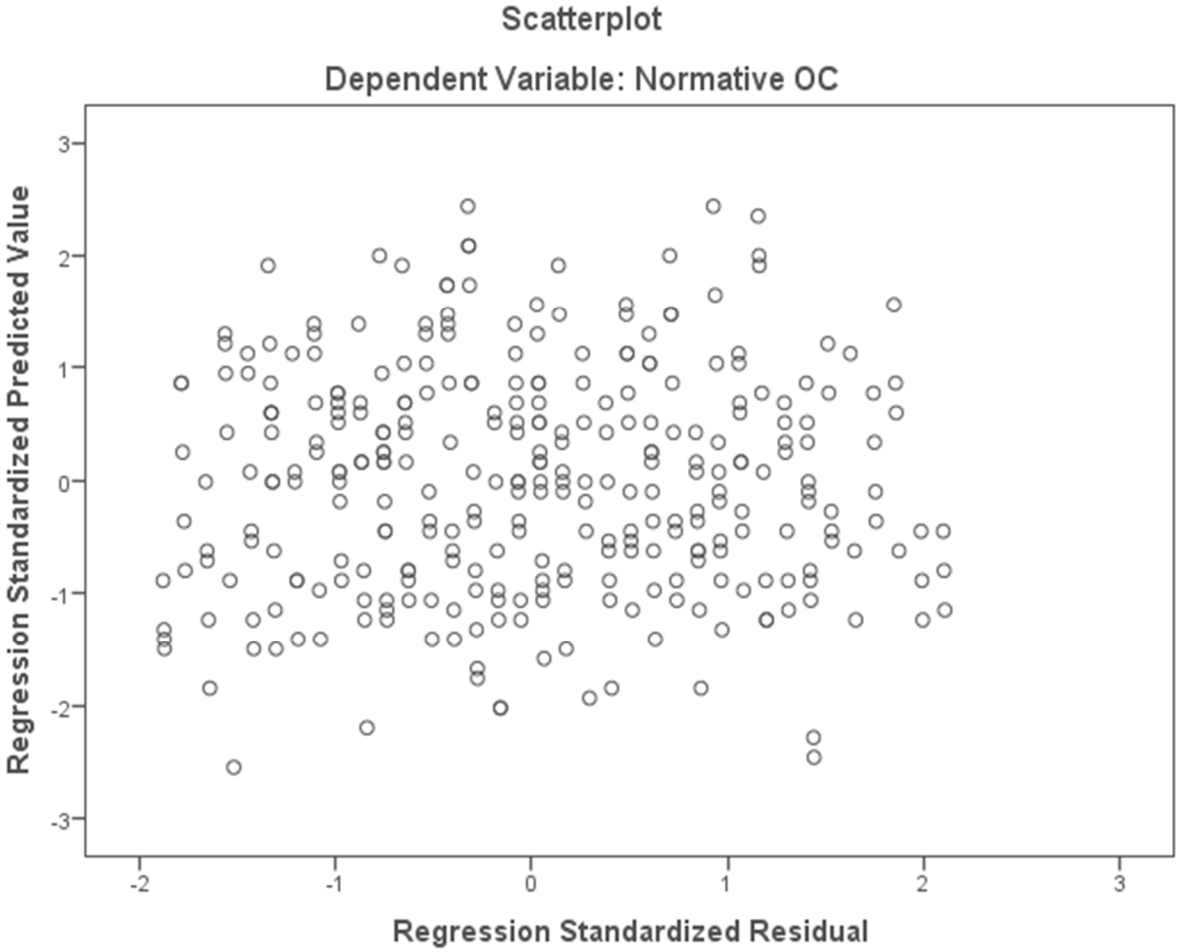

Figure 11: Variance Between Age and Normative Organizational Commitment

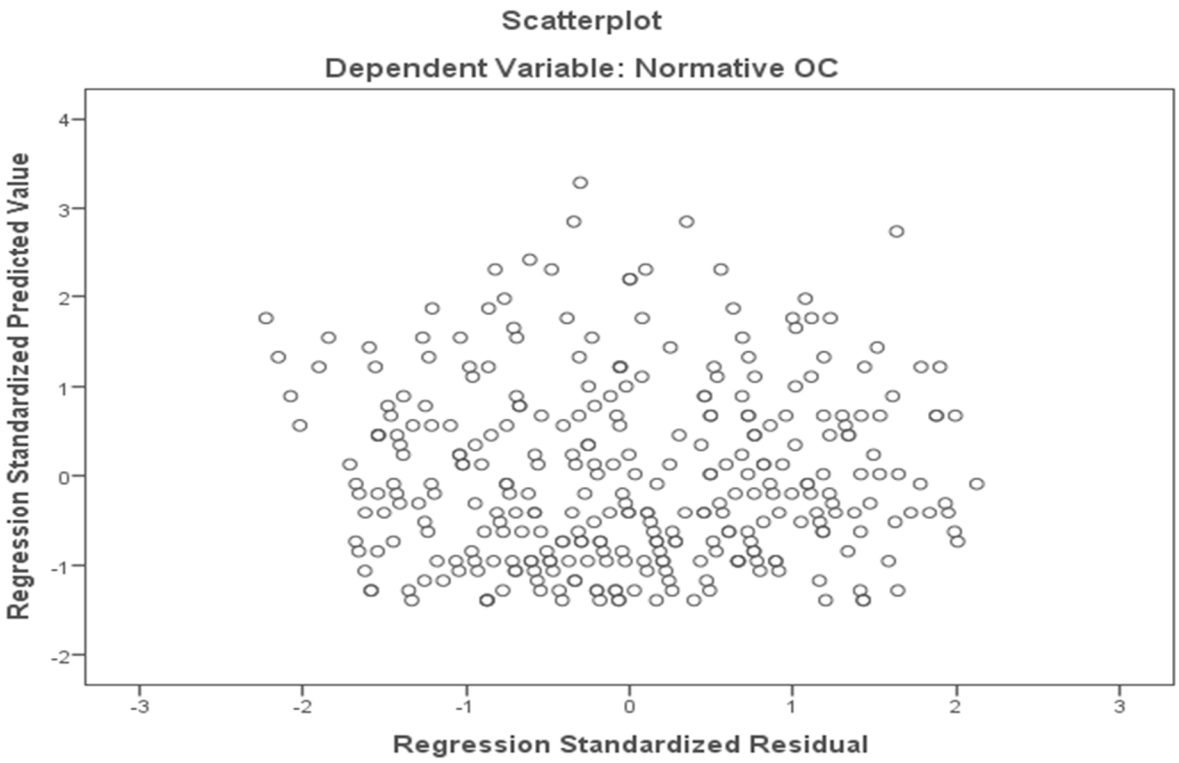

Figure 12: Variance Between Occupational Tenure and Normative Organizational Commitment

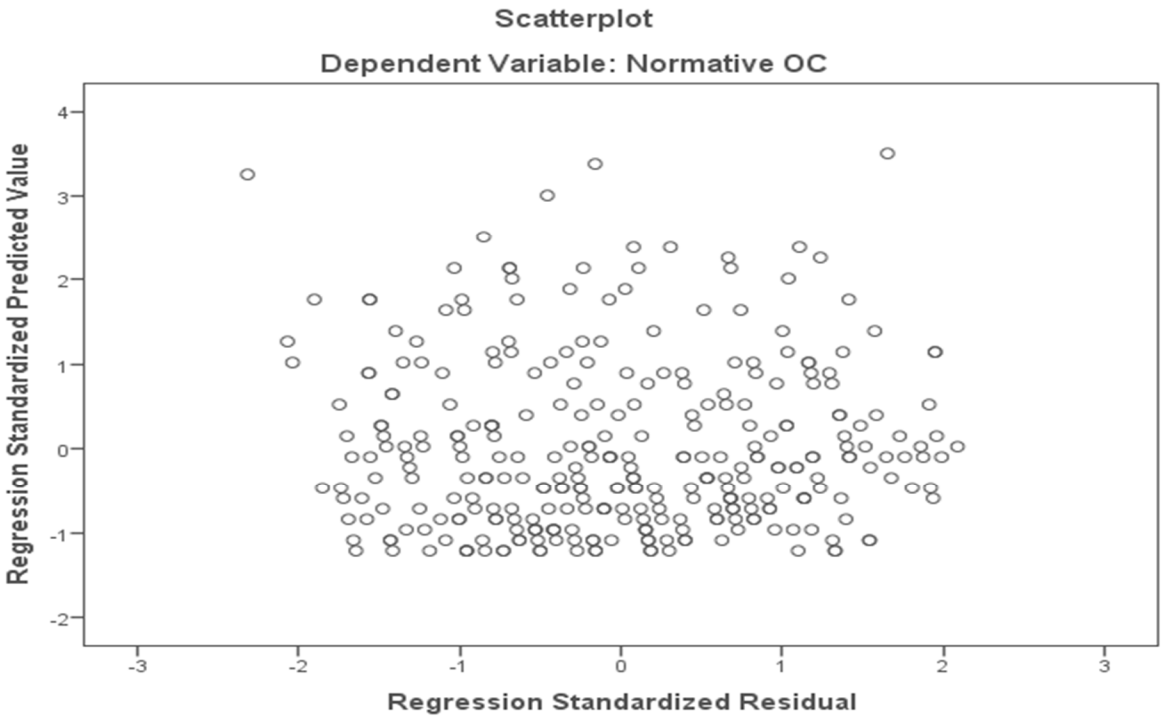

Figure 13: Variance Between Organizational Tenure and Normative Organizational Commitment

Visual inspection of the Zres and Zpred plots for these continuous variables show that they are equally distributed, so the assumption of homoscedasticity has not been violated.

Normality Test Results

To test the assumption of normality for all level-1 continuous predictors, standardized Skewness and Kurtosis statistics were calculated. Occupational tenure had skewness of 5.058, with organizational tenure having skewness of 7.437 and kurtosis of 2.138, which violated the assumption of normality.

To test the assumption of normality for all level-1 categorical predictors, Shapiro-Wilkes tests were run using the one-way ANOVA function in SPSS. The results of the normality tests for affective organizational commitment showed females to be non-normally distributed, with skewness of 51.311. White respondents were also non-normally distributed, with skewness of 5.709. In disciplines taught, Arts and Humanities (skewness 2.588), Math and Science (skewness

2.845), Technical (skewness 2.491), and Other (skewness 3.480) were all non-normally distributed. All of the other predictors of affective commitment were normally distributed.

For normative commitment, females were non-normally distributed, with skewness of kurtosis of 2.74, as well as males, with kurtosis of 2.35. Whites were also non-normally distributed, with kurtosis of 3.111. All other predictors were normally distributed.

For continuance commitment, whites were also non-normally distributed, with kurtosis of 2.454. All other predictors were normally distributed.

To attempt to address the issue of normality within these variables, the dependent variables were transformed. Each variable underwent six transformations. They were as follows: square root, reciprocal, log, logE, reverse, square, and cube. However, none of these transformations resulted in correcting either the positive or negative skew. As such, not all of the variables were normally distributed and did not meet the assumption of normality.

Modeling Process

For each component of organizational commitment, an unconditional random intercept model was first run to determine the percentage of the total variation that occurs between schools by examining the Intra-Class Correlation Coefficient (ICC). According to Koch (1982), Intra-Class Correlation is a descriptive statistic used when units are organized by group, and establishes how strongly these units resemble one another. According to Koo and Yi (2016), values less than 5% indicate poor variability, between 5% and 7.5% indicate moderate variability, values between 7.5% and 9% indicate good variability, and values over 9% indicate excellent variability. With this in mind, if the ICC for any component was 10% or higher, a multi-level hierarchical analysis model was conducted. If the ICC was below 10%, a multiple linear regression with a fixed intercept was conducted instead, using only level-1 predictors. The

ICCs for affective, normative, and continuance commitment are shown in Tables 1, 2, and 3 respectively. After examining the ICCs for each outcome, a subsequent model was created with level-1 predictors: age, race, gender, discipline taught, occupational tenure, and organizational tenure. For models with poor level-2 variability, the analysis stopped here. For models requiring multilevel analysis, a subsequent model was created with level-2 predictors: degree of urbanization, racial diversity, and student to faculty ratio.

Results for Affective Organizational Commitment

Hypothesis 1 stated that affective commitment would vary across community colleges. It was not supported, ICC=7.71% (τ=5.029, z=1.577, p>.05). Although the results did not achieve the over 10% threshold for excellent reliability set by Koo and Yi, they fell within the 7.5-9% range for good reliability, which warranted further investigation through multi-level modeling to ensure no relevant results were overlooked or dismissed.

Research question two asked which individual factors predict faculty members' level of affective organizational commitment. Results are shown in Table 1. Related hypotheses (two through seven) follow.

Hypothesis 2 stated that affective organizational commitment would increase with age. Age did not predict affective organizational commitment, b=-.024, p>.05, 95% CI [-.072, .122]. This hypothesis was not supported.

Hypothesis 3 stated that females will display higher levels of affective organizational commitment than males in faculty in community colleges in Arkansas. However, males, b=-1.67, p<.05, 95% CI [-3.70, .363] did not show a statistical difference from females, the reference group, so this hypothesis was not supported.

Hypothesis 4 stated that white faculty will display higher affective organizational commitment than non-white faculty. Affective organizational commitment in white faculty did

not differ from that of faculty identifying as American Indian or Alaska Native (b=1.20, p>.05, 95% CI [-6.55, 2.07]), Asian (b=5.06, p>.05, 95% CI [-4.13, 14.27]), Hispanic or Latino (b=-.567, p>.05, 95% CI [-8.50, 7.37]), and Other (b=1.82, p>.05, 95% CI [-5.57, 9.22]). Black faculty has lower affective commitment than white faculty (b=-12.09, p<.05, 95% CI [-18.60, -5.59]). Hypothesis 4 was partially supported.

Hypothesis 5 stated that as occupational tenure increases, so will affective organizational commitment in faculty in community colleges in Arkansas. Occupational tenure did not predict affective organizational commitment, b=.000, p>.05, 95% CI [-.169, .168]. Hypothesis 5 was not supported.

Hypothesis 6 stated that discipline taught will affect affective organizational commitment in faculty in community colleges in Arkansas. Affective organizational commitment in the reference group of faculty teaching the category of Other did not differ from faculty teaching Arts and Humanities (b=2.66, p>.05, 95% CI [-5.47, .139]), Math and Science (b=-1.20, p>.05, 95% CI [-3.91, 1.50]), Business (b=.300, p>.05, 95% CI [-3.70, 4.30]), Technical (b=-.422, p>.05, 95% CI [-3.31, 2.47]), and Developmental (b=-.175, p>.05, 95% CI [-9.41, 9.06]). This hypothesis was not supported.

Hypothesis 7 stated that affective organizational commitment will increase with organizational tenure in faculty in community colleges in Arkansas. Organizational tenure did not predict affective organizational commitment, b=.027, p>.05, 95% CI [-.15, .21], so this hypothesis was not supported.

Research question five asked whether community college variables help explain the variability of organizational commitment among community colleges. To address this question,

level-2 predictors were added to this model: degree of urbanization, racial diversity, and student-to-faculty ratio. The results of this analysis are in Tables 1, 2, and 3 under the Model 3 heading.

Hypothesis 20 stated that degree of urbanization, student-to-faculty ratio, and racial diversity will affect levels of affective organizational commitment of faculty in community colleges in Arkansas. The analysis showed that institutions categorized as City Small (b=-.198, p>.05, 95% CI [-5.84, 5.44]) Suburb Large (b=1.26, p>.05, 95% CI [-6.64, 9.16]), Suburb Small (b=4.06, p>.05, 95% CI [-2.09, 10.22]), Town Fringe (b=.155, p>.05, 95% CI [-5.81, 6.12]), Town Distant (b=1.76, p>.05, 95% CI [-4.18, 7.72]), Town Remote (b=1.32, p>.05, 95% CI [-3.99, 6.64]), Rural Fringe (b=3.55, p>.05, 95% CI [-1.79, 8.90]), Rural Distant (b=.2.32, p>.05, 95% CI [-8.21, 3.51]) did not differ from the reference group of Rural Remote. In addition, student-to-faculty ratio (b=-.302, p>.05, 95% CI [-.84, .24]) did not predict affective organizational commitment. For racial diversity, white institutions (b=1.85, p>.05, 95% CI [-1.78, 5.50]) did not differ from non-white institutions. As such, this hypothesis was not supported.

Research Question Six asked whether the relationship between faculty's race/ethnicity and organizational commitment varied as a function of the racial/ethnic makeup of the school. To address this question, the slope for an employee's race/ethnicity was allowed to vary in a subsequent model.

Hypothesis 23 claimed that the racial diversity of an institution will moderate the relationship between a faculty member's race/ethnicity and his or her affective organizational commitment. Repeated attempts to construct a random slope model for the race slope were unsuccessful due to a failure of the model to converge. This hypothesis was not supported.

Table 1. *Hierarchical Linear Modeling of Affective Organizational Commitment*

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
Covariate	β (SE)	*t*	β (SE)	*t*	β (SE)	*t*
Intercept	31.739 (0.677)	46.882	34.120 (1.055)	32.337	35.354 (5.192)	6.809
Age			0.024 (0.049)	0.506	-0.017 (.051)	-.339
Race						
White			Ref		Ref	
Am.Indian/Alaska Native			1.207 (3.621)	.333	1.281 (3.653)	.351
Asian			5.068 (4.669)	1.085	4.889 (4.718)	1.036
Black or African American			-12.098 (3.305)	-3.661*	-11.217 (3.369)	-3.329*
Hispanic or Latino			-0.567 (4.034)	-.141	2.030 (4.163)	.488
Other			1.822 (3.760)	.485	1.591 (3.868)	.411
Prefer not to Answer			-2.240 (2.190)	-1.02	-1.200 (2.371)	6.809
Gender						
Female			Ref		Ref	
Male			-1.673 (1.034)	-1.617	-1.141 (1.049)	-1.346
Prefer not to answer			-5.566 (2.635)	-2.112*	-2.254 (2.914)	-.774
Discipline Taught						
Arts and Humanities			-2.668 (1.427)	-1.870	-1.731 (1.502)	-1.153
Math and Science			-1.207 (1.375)	-.877	-.563 (11.417)	-.397
Business			0.300 (2.033)	.148	.483 (2.115)	.229
Technical			-0.422 (1.471)	-.287	.692 (1.567)	.442
Developmental			-0.175 (4.691)	-.037	-2.213 (5.795)	-.382
Other			Ref		Ref	
Occupational Tenure			-0.000 (0.085)	-.009	.022 (.087)	.255
Organizational Tenure			0.0276 (0.936)	.295	.049 (.094)	.522

Table 1 (cont.)

Degree of Urbanization						
City Small					-0.198 (2.864)	-.069
Suburb Large					1.261 (4.012)	.314
Suburb Small					4.065 (3.126)	1.300
Town Fringe					0.155 (3.033)	.051
Town Distant					1.768 (3.022)	.585
Town Remote					1.324 (2.700)	.490
Rural Fringe					3.559 (2.714)	1.311
Rural Distant					-2.352 (2.974)	-.791
Rural Remote					Ref	
Student-to-Faculty Ratio					-0.302 (0.276)	-1.091
Racial Diversity						
Nonwhite					1.857 (1.851)	1.003
White					Ref	
Variance Comp	Est (SE)	*z* (1-tail)	Est (SE)	*z* (1-tail)	Est (SE)	*z* (1-tail)
Var(Intercept)	5.029 (3.23)	1.577	60.780 (5.41)	11.216	55.811 (5.85)	9.534
Model Criteria						
ICC	7.71%		6.52%		6.97%	
-2LL	2192.015		2008.892		1959.394	
Δ -2LL	-		183.123		49.498	

Note. Ref = Reference category, AIC = Akaike Information Criterion (lower is better fit)*, BIC = Bayesian Information Criterion* (lower is better fit)*,-2LL = -2 Log Likelihood*

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, **$p < .001$

Results for Normative Organizational Commitment

For normative commitment, the ICC was 0.5% (τ=4.174, z=0.271, p>.05). Given these results, multi-level modeling was deemed unnecessary for normative commitment, as it was considered in the range of poor reliability.

Research question three asked which individual factors predict faculty members' level of normative organizational commitment. A simple regression analysis was performed for normative organizational commitment, used as the dependent variable, against the demographic variables of age, race, disciplines taught, occupational tenure, and organizational tenure to determine if any of the predictors showed significance in relation to levels of normative commitment. The results of this analysis are found in Table 2. Related hypotheses (eight through thirteen) follow.

Hypothesis 8 stated that normative organizational commitment will increase with age in faculty in community colleges in Arkansas. Age did not predict normative organizational commitment, b=-0.92, p>.05, 95% CI [-.19, .01], so this hypothesis was not supported.

Hypothesis 9 hypothesized that males will display more normative organizational commitment than females in faculty in community colleges in Arkansas. Males (b=1.448, p>.05, 95% CI [-.676, 3.57]) nor those preferring not to answer (b=-.406, p>.05, 95%CI [-6.06. 5.25]) significantly varied from the reference group of females, so this hypothesis was not supported.

Hypothesis 10 stated that white faculty will display more normative organizational commitment than non-white faculty. However, American Indian or Alaska Native (b=-3.737, p>.05, 95% CI [-11.52, 4.05]), Asian (b=-.805, p>.05, 95% CI [-10.91, 9.31]), Black or African American (b=.283, p>.05, 95% CI [-6.84, 7.37]), Hispanic (b=-4.325, p>.05, 95% CI [-12.99,

4.34]), Other (*b*=-.818, *p*>.05, 95% CI [-8.87, 7.23]), and those who preferred not to answer (*b*=1.063, *p*>.05, 95% CI [-3.65, 5.77]) significantly varied from white faculty. This hypothesis was not supported.

Hypothesis 11 stated that normative organizational commitment will increase with occupational tenure in faculty in community colleges in Arkansas. Occupational commitment did not predict normative organizational commitment, *b*=.158, *p*>.05, 95% CI [-.02, .33], so this hypothesis was not supported.

Hypothesis 12 stated that the type of discipline taught will affect the level of normative organizational commitment in faculty in community colleges in Arkansas. Those faculty teaching Math and Science (*b*=.885, *p*>.05, 95% CI [-1.65, 3.42]), Business (*b*=.672, *p*>.05, 95% CI [-3.46, 4.80]), Technical (*b*=.772, *p*>.05, 95% CI [-2.32, 4.15]), or Developmental (*b*=4.00, *p*>.05, 95% CI [-6.04, 14.05]), did not significantly vary from the reference group of Other. However, Arts and Humanities (*b*=3.284, *p*<.05, 95% CI [.596, 5.97]) differed significantly from the reference group, so this Hypothesis was supported.

Hypothesis 13 stated that normative organizational commitment will increase with organizational tenure in faculty in community colleges in Arkansas. Organizational tenure did not predict normative organizational commitment, *b*=.047, *p*>.05, 95% CI [-.14, .24], so this hypothesis was not supported.

Research Question Five asked whether community college variables help explain the variability of organizational commitment among community colleges, and to that end, Hypothesis 21 stated that degree of urbanization, student-to-faculty ratio, and racial diversity will affect levels of normative organizational commitment of faculty in community colleges in

Arkansas. As stated previously, the ICC was 1%, so no effect was seen between school-level variables and normative organizational commitment.

Research Question Six asked whether the relationship between faculty's race/ethnicity and organizational commitment varied as a function of the racial/ethnic makeup of the school, and Hypothesis 24 stated that he racial diversity of an institution will moderate the relationship between a faculty member's race and his or her level of normative organizational commitment. Again, due to the low ICC, there was no effect between school-level variables and normative organizational commitment.

Table 2. *Multiple Linear Regression of Normative Organizational Commitment*

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
Covariate	β (SE)	*t*	β (SE)	*t*	β (SE)	*t*
Intercept	23.706 (0.521)	45.539	22.117 (.942)	23.468		
Age			0.92 (0.522)	-1.783		
Race						
White			Ref			
Am. Indian/Alaska Native			-3.737 (3.959)	-.944		
Asian			-0.805 (5.139)	-.157		
Black or African American			0.263 (3.613)	.073		
Hispanic or Latino			-4.325 (4.404)	-.982		
Other			-0.818 (4.093)	-.200		
Prefer not to Answer			1.063 (2.396)	.444		
Gender						
Female			Ref			
Male			1.448 (1.079)	1.342		
Prefer not to answer			-0.406 (2.877)	-.141		
Discipline Taught						
Arts and Humanities			3.284 (1.366)	2.405*		
Math and Science			0.885 (1.291)	.686		
Business			0.672 (2.102)	.320		
Technical			0.585 (1.632)	.431		
Other			Ref			
Occupational Tenure			.158 (.091)	1.739		
Organizational Tenure			.047 (.098)	.476		

Table 2 (cont'd)

Degree of Urbanization
City Small
Suburb Large
Suburb Small
Town Fringe
Town Distant
Town Remote
Rural Fringe
Rural Distant
Rural Remote

Student-to-Faculty Ratio

Racial Diversity
White
Nonwhite

Variance Comp	Est (SE)	*z* (1-tail)	Est (SE)	*z* (1-tail)	Est (SE)	*z* (1-tail)
Var(Intercept)	4.174 (1.54)	0.271				
Model Criteria						
ICC	1%					
-2LL	2256.461					
Δ -2LL	-					

Note. Ref = Reference category, AIC = Akaike Information Criterion (lower is better fit)*, BIC = Bayesian Information Criterion* (lower is better fit)*,-2LL = -2 Log Likelihood*
*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, **$p < .001$

Results for Continuance Organizational Commitment

Research question one asked if organizational commitment (OC) varied across community colleges. For continuance commitment, the ICC was 4.25% (τ=3.064, z=1.10, p>.05). This was close to Koo and Yi's 5% threshold for moderate reliability, so further investigation was made through multi-level modeling to ensure a thorough study.

Research question four asked which individual factors predict faculty members' level of continuance organizational commitment. The same procedure was conducted here as in research question two. The results of this analysis are found in Table 3. Related hypotheses (fourteen through 19) follow.

Hypothesis 14 stated that, in regards to age, continuance organizational commitment will decrease with age in faculty in community colleges in Arkansas. Age did not predict continuance commitment, b=.005, p>.05, 95% CI [-.09, .10], so this hypothesis was not supported.

Hypothesis 15 stated that males will show more continuance organizational commitment than females in faculty in community colleges in Arkansas. However, males b=-3.61, p<.05, 95% CI [-5.15, -.976] significantly less continuance commitment than females, who were used as the reference group. This hypothesis was not supported.

Hypothesis 16 hypothesized that white faculty will display more continuance organizational commitment than non-white faculty. Affective continuance commitment in white faculty did not differ from that of faculty identifying as American Indian or Alaska Native (b=-1.54, p>.05, 95% CI [-5.97, 2.88]), Asian (b=.106, p>.05, 95% CI [-7.22, 7.43]), Hispanic or Latino (b=3.84, p>.05, 95% CI [-5.66, 13.35]), and Other (b=2.97, p>.05, 95% CI [-4.59,

10.54]). Black faculty had lower continuance commitment than white faculty,)*b*=-11.29, *p*<.05, 95% CI [-17.98, -4.61]), so Hypothesis 4 was partially supported.

Hypothesis 17 stated that continuance organizational commitment will decrease with more years of occupational tenure in faculty in community colleges in Arkansas. Occupational tenure did not predict continuance organizational commitment, *b*=.010, *p*>.05, 95% CI [-.16, .18], so this hypothesis was not supported.

Hypothesis 18 stated that the type of discipline taught will affect the level of continuance organizational commitment in faculty in community colleges in Arkansas. Continuance organizational commitment in the reference group of faculty teaching the category of Other did not differ from faculty teaching Arts and Humanities (*b*=-2.16, *p*>.05, 95% CI [-5.04, .713]), Math and Science (*b*=-.757, *p*>.05, 95% CI [-3.53, 2.02]), Business (*b*=-.398, *p*>.05, 95% CI [-4.50, 3.70]), Technical (*b*=2.88, *p*>.05, 95% CI [-.079, 5.85]), or Developmental (*b*=-4.21, *p*>.05, 95% CI [-13.73, 5.29]). Hypothesis 18 was not supported.

Hypothesis 19 stated that continuance organizational commitment will increase with more years of organizational tenure in faculty in community colleges in Arkansas. However, organizational tenure did not predict continuance commitment, *b*=-.001, *p*>.05, 95% CI [-.19, .18], so this hypothesis was not supported.

Research Question Five asked whether community college variables help explain the variability of organizational commitment among community colleges. To address this question, level-2 predictors were added to the model: degree of urbanization, racial diversity, and student-to-faculty ratio. The results of this analysis can be seen in Tables 1, 2, and 3 under the Model 3 heading.

Hypothesis 22 stated that degree of urbanization, student-to-faculty ratio, and racial diversity will affect levels of continuance organizational commitment of faculty in community colleges in Arkansas. The analysis showed that institutions categorized as City Small (b=--.878, p>.05, 95% CI [-6.65, 4.90]), Suburb Large (b=-2.87, p>.05, 95% CI [-10.96, 5.20]), Suburb Small (b=.432, p>.05, 95% CI [-5.87, 6.73]), Town Fringe (b=-2.90, p>.05, 95% CI [-9.01, 3.21]), Town Distant (b=-.964, p>.05, 95% CI [-7.06, 5.13]), Town Remote (b=-1.19, p>.05, 95% CI [-6.46, 4.25]), Rural Fringe (b=1.17, p>.05, 95% CI [-4.30, 6.65]), Rural Distant (b=-3.83, p>.05, 95% CI [-9.84, 2.16]) did not differ from the reference group of Rural Remote.

However, student-to-faculty ratio (b=-.651, p<.05, 95% CI [-1.20, .092]) did predict continuous organizational commitment. For racial diversity, white institutions (b=1.60, p>.05, 95% CI [-2.12, 5.33]) did not differ from non-white institutions. As such, this hypothesis was partially supported.

Research Question Six asked whether the relationship between faculty's race/ethnicity and organizational commitment varied as a function of the racial/ethnic makeup of the school. To address this question, the slope for an employee's race/ethnicity was allowed to vary in the subsequent model.

Hypothesis 25 claimed that the racial diversity of an institution will moderate the relationship between a faculty member's race/ethnicity and his or her continuance organizational commitment. Repeated attempts to construct a random slope model for the race slope were unsuccessful due to a failure of the model to converge. This hypothesis was not supported.

Table 3. *Hierarchical Linear Modeling of Continuance Organizational Commitment*

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
Covariate	β (SE)	*t*	β (SE)	*t*	β (SE)	*t*
Intercept	23.327 (0.623)	43.858	29.228 (1.082)	27.006	38.876 (5.316)	7.313
Age			0.005 (0.049)	0.115	-.031 (.052)	-.587
Race						
White			Ref		Ref	
Am.Indian/Alaska Native			0.106 (3.724)	. 029	-0.597 (3.737)	-.160
Asian			3.846 (4.831)	.796	3.986 (4.825)	.826
Black or African American			-11.295 (3.396)	-3.326*	-11.224 (3.448)	-3.255*
Hispanic or Latino			-0.215 (4.138)	-.052	0.859 (4.261)	.202
Other			2.978 (3.846)	.774	4.187 (3.960)	1.507
Prefer not to answer			-1.545 (2.251)	-.687	-0.942 (2.426)	-.388
Gender						
Female			Ref		Ref	
Male			-3.065 (1.061)	-2.465*	-2.851 (1.074)	-2.563*
Prefer not to answer			-6.680 (2.709)	-2.889*	-5.002 (2.981)	-1.678
Discipline Taught						
Arts and Humanities			-2.167 (1.463)	-1.481	-1.339 (1.537)	-.871
Math and Science			-0.757 (1.411)	-.537	-0.595 (1.450)	-.411
Business			-0.398 (2.084)	-.191	-0.570 (2.164)	-.264
Technical			2.888 (1.507)	1.916	3.193 (1.604)	1.991
Devlopmental			-4.219 (4.835)	-.873	-3.471 (5.928)	-.585
Other			Ref		Ref	
Occupational Tenure			0.010 (0.879)	.120	0.0373 (.089)	.415
Organizational Tenure			-0.001 (0.957)	-.017	-0.012 (.096)	-.133

Table 3 (cont'd)

Degree of Urbanization		
City Small	-0.878 (2.932)	-.299
Suburb Large	-2.879 (4.107)	-.701
Suburb Small	0.432 (3.201)	.135
Town Fringe	-2.903(3.105)	-.935
Town Distant	-0.964 (3.095)	-.312
Town Remote	-1.196 (2.765)	-.433
Rural Fringe	1.176 (2.779)	.423
Rural Distant	-3.837 (3.046)	-1.260
Rural Remote	Ref	
Student-to-Faculty Ratio	-0.651 (0.283)	-2.297*
Racial Diversity		
Nonwhite	1.608 (1.894)	.849
White	Ref	

Variance Comp	Est (SE)	*z* (1-tail)	Est (SE)	*z* (1-tail)	Est (SE)	*z* (1-tail)
Var(Intercept)	3.064 (2.79)	1.10	64.818 (6.10)	10.622	63.985 (6.45)	9.911
Model Criteria						
ICC	4.25%		0.00%		0.00%	
-2LL	2228.687		2021.255		1981.655	
Δ -2LL	-		207.43		39.6	

Note. Ref = Reference category, AIC = Akaike Information Criterion (lower is better fit)*, BIC = Bayesian Information Criterion* (lower is better fit)*,-2LL = -2 Log Likelihood*
*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, **$p < .001$

Validity and Reliability

Since a previously tested survey was used for this study**,** its reliability and validity as a measure of organizational commitment has been established. Construct validity has been established by numerous researchers (Allen and Meyer, 1990; McGee and Ford, 1987; Dunham and Grube, 1990; Hackett et al., 1994; Somers, 1993; and Vanderberge, 1996). Furthermore, in Meyer and Allen's TCM Employee Commitment Survey, four of the 18 questions were reversed scored, so the reliability of the responses to the survey were strengthened further. Hopper (2013) claims that item reversals solidify a measurement of the respondents' opinions, avoid careless responses, and help avoid agreement bias.

Of concern, however, was that much of the data violated the assumptions of normality and equal variances. Steps were taken to correct this, but none of the transformations attempted corrected these issues. Findings should be interpreted in light of these assumption violations. Threats to external validity arose from limited survey responses. The survey was available for three weeks, and two reminders were sent after the initial request; however, only a 25% response rate was achieved. This may have produced a biased sample that was not representative of the populations of community college faculty across Arkansas. For example, the institutions had an unequal distribution of respondents; there were 27 respondents from National Park College, but only three from Phillips Community College. In addition, although Black and African Americans showed significantly lower organizational commitment in each category, there were only six respondents. This means that drawing accurate conclusions about this race could be impacted.

Summary and Conclusion

This study found evidence to support Hypothesis 12, which stated that discipline taught will affect the level of normative commitment, most specifically in faculty who teach Arts and

Humanities. However, the study only found partial evidence to support two hypotheses, Hypothesis 4 and Hypothesis 16, both of which measure the commitment of faculty of different races. These found that Black or African American respondents showed significantly less affective and continuance commitment than Whites. However, only six Black or African Americans responded to the survey. In addition, Hypothesis 22 was partially supported, showing that student-to-faculty ratio predicted continuance commitment. Also, although disproving Hypothesis 15, males showed significantly less continuance organizational commitment than females. Overall, affective commitment was high among Arkansas community college faculty, and only one of the demographic factors and one of the school level predictors acted as true predictors of commitment.

Chapter 5

Summary, Conclusion, Limitations, Discussion, and Recommendations

Introduction

This chapter is divided into six sections. The first section summarizes the purpose and corresponding problem statement guiding this study. The second section interprets the findings, then discusses the implications for theory, research, and practice. Next, the limitations are discussed, as well as recommendations for future research. The chapter concludes with a brief conclusion.

Summary

Purpose of the Study and Problem Statement. The purpose of this study was to determine the predictors of organizational commitment in community college faculty in Arkansas. The study was based on research indicating that community college faculty as a whole are showing signs of lower engagement and commitment, despite the importance of a committed, engaged faculty.

Research Questions. The research for this study was guided by Meyer and Allen's (1991) theory on organizational commitment. They divided commitment into three distinct but interrelated components of organizational commitment, which provided a more thorough insight into how employees are committed to their work and employers. Additionally, based on research focused on individual demographic data and research on institutions as a whole, this study evaluated this commitment on both demographic data and institutional data. The research questions were as follows:

- What individual factors (i.e. age, gender, race, occupational tenure, subject matter expertise/disciplines taught, and organizational tenure) predict faculty members' level of affective commitment in community colleges in Arkansas?
- What individual factors (i.e. age, gender, race, occupational tenure, subject matter expertise/disciplines taught, and organizational tenure) predict faculty members' level of normative commitment in community colleges in Arkansas?
- What individual factors (i.e. age, gender, race, occupational tenure, subject matter expertise/disciplines taught, and organizational tenure) predict faculty members' level of continuance commitment in community colleges in Arkansas?
- Does organizational commitment vary across community colleges?
- Do community college variables (i.e., degree of urbanization, student-to-faculty ratio, and racial diversity) help explain the variability of organizational commitment among community colleges?
- Does the relationship between faculty's race/ethnicity and organizational commitment vary as a function of the racial/ethnic makeup of the school?

Interpretations

The following interpretations were drawn following the study. Each is presented with the corresponding research questions.

Interpretation for level-1 predictors. Research questions one, two, and three, asked which individual factors predicted faculty's level of affective, normative, and continuance commitment, respectively. The study found that only three of the demographic factors predicted any of these components of organizational commitment: Arts and Humanities faculty displayed higher levels of normative organizational commitment than their peers, and males displayed less

continuance commitment than females. Additionally, while African American faculty showed lower levels of affective commitment compared to white faculty, only six African Americans responded to the survey. These results are counter to much of the research concerning community college faculty nationwide. For example, Kaiser (2005) found that older faculty showed higher levels of commitment, Messer (2006) found that faculty organizational commitment increased with years with the organization, and Flynn (2000) found that number of years with the institution positively correlated to affective commitment. The current study was unable to replicate any of these findings with faculty in Arkansas.

The organizational commitment of community college faculty in Arkansas, then, appears to be influenced by unique factors. Demographic predictors identified in the literature failed to predict their level of commitment, regardless of the component of commitment, with the exception of three demographic variables in isolated components. However, faculty's affective commitment was the highest mean score of the three (M=31.81), compared to continuance (M=27.21) and normative (M=23.73) commitment, which could indicate an intrinsic commitment to their profession and organization. This supports findings by Eddy (2010), who stated that a desire to teach was at the root of faculty's decision to enter the profession, and Bowen and Shuster (1996), who claimed that faculty will work hard if they feel they are making a contribution. To that end, these results could be a positive takeaway, in that being affectively committed, by definition, leads to characteristics that correlate to Troy's (2013) definition of an engaged individual as "someone who is involved (beyond minimum responsibilities)" (p. 50). As such, these characteristics are contrary to those that have led to national trends of decreased engagement (Cornerstone, 2016), low levels of effectiveness (Maxey & Kezar, 2016), and increased turnover (Xu, 2008).

Interpretation for level-2 predictors. Research question four asked if organizational commitment varied across community colleges, and research questions five and six asked if community college variables help explain the variability of organizational commitment. Again, organizational commitment did not vary significantly across community colleges for any of the three components of organizational commitment. Relatedly, no community college variables accounted for variance in organizational commitment except student-to-faculty ratio (b=-.651, p=.022, 95% CI [-1.20, .092]), which predicted continuance commitment. Therefore, even introducing level-2 institutional variables did not account for most of the variation in faculty's organizational commitment. As such, for this particular group of faculty members, their commitment is unaffected outside influencers (degree of urbanization, racial diversity), despite research that indicates these characteristics are impactful. Mueller et al. (1999) found that the racial diversity of the faculty compared to the racial diversity of the student population can have significant impacts on organizational commitment. Furthermore, Roessler (2006) stated that the size and budget disparity between urban and rural institutions have an adverse effect on faculty, as lack of resources and increased responsibility due to the size and location of the institution impact levels of commitment. However, despite this, these factors did not predict Arkansas faculty's organizational commitment.

The fact that student-to-faculty ratio helped to explain the variability in continuance organizational commitment suggests that large class sizes affect faculty's determination on whether or not they need to stay in their profession. This is consistent with research in the area. Finn and Achilles (1990) found that large class sizes with large spans of student ability levels strong impacted whether or not teachers felt they were effective. Monks and Schmidt (2011) found that larger class sizes correlated with less enthusiasm and less effective teaching methods.

Also, California State University at Sacramento (2008) found that increases in class sizes have resulted in increased challenges to classroom management. In this current study, although it is positive that it only affected one component of organizational commitment, it nevertheless had a significant effect. Employees who display strong continuance organizational commitment do so from a perceived need to stay with the organization, as they have weighed the costs associated with leaving the organization and have determined it would be too costly (either personally or professionally) to leave. This indicates that large class sizes are causing the participants of this study to question whether or not they need to remain with the organization.

Therefore, the overall conclusion that can be made from the study is that the only solid predictors of the components of organizational commitment in Arkansas faculty that participated in this study are discipline taught (for only normative commitment), race (to a degree), gender (for only continuance commitment) and student-to-faculty ratio (for only continuance commitment). No other demographic or institutional factors studied here had an impact on the degree to which faculty are attached to their institution.

Implications for Theory, Research, and Practice

Implications for organizational commitment theory/research. This study indicates the need for more research in regards to higher education faculty and organizational commitment. Frauenhoffer (1998) found that organizational tenure predicted both affective and continuance commitment, and Ng and Feldman (2011) found that it affected commitment as a whole, as did Flynn (2000) and Gormley (2005). However, organizational tenure was not a predictor of any component of organizational commitment with Arkansas faculty. In addition, Kaiser (2005) found that faculty from the boomer and thirteenth generations showed higher organizational commitment, and Messer (2006) found that faculty aged 21-35 showed the lowest organizational

commitment. This is consistent with research concerning the predictive value of age from Gormley (2005) and Engle (2010). However, this study found no predictive value in age in regards to organizational commitment. Similarly, both Fraunenhoffer (1998) and Austin-Hickey (2013) discovered predictive value in occupational tenure, yet the same was not present in Arkansas faculty. In light of this, more research needs to be done on the components of organizational commitment and demographic characteristics of community college faculty to determine whether the results of this study are an anomaly or an emerging trend.

Implications for faculty commitment theory/research. In considering demographic predictors, this study of community college faculty in Arkansas showed that only discipline taught (specifically with Arts and Humanities faculty) accounted for some of the variation in normative organizational commitment, and males accounted for some of the variation in continuance commitment. Faculty teaching Arts and Humanities showed significantly higher levels of normative organizational commitment than the reference group, meaning that in some cases disciplines taught *positively* affected organizational commitment. This is counter to Hill (2014), who found that commitment was higher for business faculty, and Xu (2008), who claimed that factors related to turnover are directly related to disciplines. This study, then, shows that disciplines mostly do not affect organizational commitment, and when they do, it is in some cases a positive effect. Of particular curiosity is why Arts and Humanities faculty showed higher levels, considering that varying levels of student preparedness has been shown to affect faculty commitment. Boyer (1990) cited academically under-prepared students as a noted frustration to faculty, and Agago (1995) discussed the strain of faculty's work with these types of students who require considerable attention both inside and outside of the classroom. Arts and Humanities faculty would deal with this issue more noticeably, as they typically have to contend with student

writing and the various levels of skill related to that, so this would be an area in which further research is needed.

For males and continuance commitment, the study showed that males display less of a need to remain with the organization. However, given that there was no significant predictability in gender in affective and normative commitment, males still displayed that they possess a desire and obligation to their organization. Nevertheless, males showing lower commitment is consistent with current literature on gender and commitment, as Stengel (1983) and Frauenhoffer (1998) both found that females showed stronger organizational commitment than males, while Malloy (1996) found that organizational commitment is affected by the gender makeup of work groups. Additionally, these findings correlate to Meyer and Allen's (1997) assertion that although the components of organizational commitment are unique, they are still interrelated, although the nature of that relationship will differ in a variety of ways based on the context of the work environment.

Implications for connecting theory to practice. This study shows that community college faculty in Arkansas show signs of the ideal working state that is repeatedly discussed in the literature. As stated by Thirolf (2015), faculty believe that caring about and supporting students, as well as serving their communities, was central to their identity. In addition, Norman, Ambrose, and Huston (2006) found that faculty desire to work with like-minded individuals toward a common goal. As such, Rosser and Townsend (2004) found that the quality of faculty's worklife has a direct effect on their morale. Since Meyer and Allen (1991) stated that affective commitment refers to an employee's emotional attachment to and involvement in an organization, Arkansas faculty's consistent scores on this component indicates that possess the psychological attachment to their organization that is repeatedly described as ideal in the

literature. In this study, none of the demographic predictors, (with the exception of the small contingent of black faculty) accounted for the variability in affective commitment, and this did not change when bringing in the institutional characteristics as well. This is a positive result for community colleges in Arkansas, and is a key addition to the literature, as it connects theory and practice.

Implications for practice. Given the necessity for faculty to possess a tendency toward affective organizational commitment, they should be encouraged and enabled to become more active and involved in the workings of the institution. Bowen and Schuster (1996) have stated that faculty will work hard if they feel they are making a contribution, and other studies (Messer, 2006; Spencer, 1989; Mattier, 1990; Norman, Ambrose, & Hutson, 2006) found that faculty feel a need to belong to something bigger than themselves and be aligned with like-minded people, which in turn strengthens their bond to the organization. While other studies have shown that although these involvements can be burdensome if required rather than volunteered (Lackritz, 2004; Brawer, 1989; Hicks & Jones 2011), ensuring faculty are involved contributes to increasing their levels of affective commitment. For example, encouraging faculty participation in faculty senate, curriculum decisions, co-curricular activities, and new program development could help faculty feel a strengthened sense of ownership in the institution, while at the same time serving to enhance the student experience. In addition, conducting meaningful surveys of faculty to determine the areas of primary concern in their philosophy of educating students, as well as areas of weakness can not only help institutions pinpoint the areas faculty feel most strongly toward, but also areas of weakness within the structure, policies, and procedures of the institution. This would support Stengel's (1983) findings that faculty who perceived progress

was being made were more committed than their peers, and Engle's (2010) findings that organizational support could reliably predict organizational commitment.

Another item that is consistent in the current research is that of allowing faculty to focus on teaching while providing them with acceptable workloads that enable them to maintain that focus. The main difference between community college faculty and their counterparts is that none of them are devoted primarily to research (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2008). Furthermore, according to Brewer (2000), community college faculty view teaching as their primary function. However, Firestone and Pennell (1993) found that large class loads can affect their commitment, Hicks and Jones (2011) found that rural faculty have to take on more roles outside of the classroom, and Eddy (2010) found that fluctuations in the institutional environment can adversely affect faculty's commitment to the institution. As found in this study, only student-to-faculty ratio impacted Arkansas community college faculty's commitment, while other level-two institutional predictors had no effect in predicting organizational commitment. This indicates that community colleges in this state for the most part are providing an environment for faculty to devote themselves to the craft of teaching, and this environment is one that needs to remain constant. Nevertheless, exploring strategies to maintain acceptable class sizes could lead to even more productive work environments for community college faculty.

Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

Limitations. As stated in Chapter 4, the assumption of equal variance and the homogeneity of variance were not met, despite multiple attempts at transforming the data. This typically affects the reliability of the data. However, with the large size of the dataset (N=321), it is not as much of a concern as it would be if the amount of faculty surveyed were smaller (Mordkoff, 2016). Secondly, the number of responses from each community college varied

widely, with the most being from Northwest Arkansas Community College with 34, to the smallest being from Phillips Community College with 3. A more consistent response from each institution would have yielded a clearer picture of faculty commitment at each institution and may have furthered the study's ability to identify variation in organizational commitment across institutions. Additionally, although African American faculty showed a statistically different amount of affective commitment, the response rate was noticeably low, with six respondents in that category out of 321 total respondents. As such, although this is inconclusive, it does raise the need for further study.

Recommendations for further research in race and disciplines. African American faculty showed statistically different levels of commitment, yet only six total individuals from that demographic category responded to the survey. While this could be meaningful, it could also be that only the dissatisfied individuals responded to the survey. Since none of the other races predicted organizational commitment, it is curious as to why this group, albeit a small one, showed lower levels of commitment. However, these findings are consistent with the research, as Pettaway (2014) found that African American faculty employed at institutions with predominantly white faculty indicate low levels of commitment, and Watanabe's (2010) survey of STEM faculty found that organizational commitment varied significantly by race. It would be helpful to study African American community college faculty in Arkansas exclusively to gauge whether this applies to the majority of those faculty, and if it does, determine the specifics of what factors contribute to it. Furthermore, as in the research by Niemann and Dovidio (1998), black faculty's commitment was predicated on the racial makeup of the school at which they taught, as they claimed that racial minorities typically experience negative effects of their distinction from the racial majority; however, this present study showed no variance in

commitment between institutions or racial diversity, so studying black faculty exclusively would make a significant contribution to the literature.

Recommendations for qualitative research. Furthermore, a close study of how teaching specific disciplines and the workloads involved affect organizational commitment would be pertinent as well. In this study, Arts and Humanities faculty showed higher levels of normative commitment than their counterparts in other disciplines. This means that the subject matter a faculty member teaches has an effect on whether or not he or she felt obligated to continue employment with the institution, and in some cases the subject matter acts as a positive predictor of a component of organizational commitment. Conducting further qualitative study in this area could break down how workload, student preparedness, and level of satisfaction within a certain discipline of study, especially Arts and Humanities, affects a faculty member's commitment to the institution. This would provide researchers with more specific information on individual groups of faculty.

In addition, it would be of interest to delve further into the reasoning behind faculty's levels of commitment, as in which activities caused them to experience positive feelings more intensely. This could be done in a qualitative study of faculty members as well, as it would provide more detailed insight compared to simple survey responses on a Likert scale. Asking what specifically causes a faculty to psychologically bond with their profession and institution and comparing those responses for consistency would provide insight not currently present in the literature. As stated previously in the research, faculty have a noticeable desire to teach and make a difference, but what specific activities and occurrences strengthen this desire would be pertinent knowledge. This could lead to the creation of more faculty-driven student success strategies, such as academic-led tutoring, mentoring, and more intrusive advising, which could

help institutions involve faculty more directly in activities that impact and fosters feelings of commitment to the organization.

Recommendations for further research in education. As stated in the beginning of this study, there is still a lack of research on organizational commitment focused solely on higher education faculty. While this study contributes to that area of research, the literature is still sparse, despite the need for more insights. This study showed that educators, specifically community college faculty in Arkansas, did not vary in their levels of commitment, with the exception of three of the nine variables studied. However, the specifics of the origins of that commitment remain elusive, as well as the implications to capitalize on that to serve more students more effectively. In addition, a comparative study of faculty and student services staff could determine whether affective organizational commitment is exclusive to those who teach or is consistent among all employees at the community college.

Furthermore, this study shows a need for more research focused on states/regions instead of institutions. Previous studies regarding organizational commitment focused on specific institutions (Hill, 1984; Kaiser, 2005; Short, 2013; Messer, 2006) or specific groups of faculty (Flynn, 2000; Austin-Hickey, 2013; Gormley, 2005). However, this study focused on community college faculty within an entire state, correlating with two comparable studies by Engle (2010) in North Carolina, and Stengel (1983) in Arizona. Furthermore, since many states, such as Tennessee, Kansas, and Nevada, operate their community colleges together under a system or board of regents, seeing how faculty are committed statewide can help determine where the issues exist, if any, that keep faculty from performing their best in their service of students.

Conclusion.

Arkansas faculty do not align with research that has been conducted previously on community college faculty organizational commitment. They displayed consistent levels of commitment across all three components of Meyer and Allen's scale. Thus, across all 22 institutions in the state, faculty showed little variance in the majority of demographic characteristics and institutional characteristics serving as predictors of this commitment. With only a few of the characteristics studied possessing any predictive value, the academic units of these institutions displayed that faculty are consistent in their feelings toward their institutions and the jobs they perform, with only a few areas affecting this consistency. From the results of this study, community college faculty in Arkansas can be viewed as one broad group, instead of a collection of smaller groups that constitute a whole, at least when in concerns commitment. Therefore, as institutions look to improve the work environment for their educators, they can look to broad changes to positively impact all faculty, as there are only pockets of individuals that deviate from their peers, which bodes well for continued success.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Survey Instrument:

Base Version Broken Down by Component

The survey will incorporate a Likert scale as follows:

1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = slightly disagree, 4= undecided, 5 = slightly agree, 6 = agree, 7 = strongly agree

Revised Version (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993)

Affective Commitment Scale

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.

2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.

3. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization. (R)

4. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. (R)

5. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. (R)

6. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.

Continuance Commitment Scale

1. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.

2. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.

3. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.

4. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.

5. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.

6. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.

Normative Commitment Scale

1. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer. (R)

2. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.

3. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.

4. This organization deserves my loyalty.

5. I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.

6. I owe a great deal to my organization.

Demographic Questions

1.What is your age?

_____ years

2.What is your gender?

Male
Female
Prefer not to answer

3.What is your race?

American Indian or Alaska Native
Asian
Black or African American
Hispanic or Latino
White
Other
Prefer not to answer

4.How many years have you been teaching in higher education?

_____ years

5. How many years have you been with your present institution?

_____ years

6. What subject matter do you teach?

Arts/Humanities
Math/Science
Business
Technical
Developmental
Other

7.At which institution are you currently employed?

Arkansas Northeastern College
Arkansas State University Beebe
Arkansas State University Mid-South
Arkansas State University Mountain Home
Arkansas State University Newport
Black River Technical College
College of the Ouachitas
East Arkansas Community College
National Park College
North Arkansas College
North West Arkansas Community College
Ozarka College
Phillips Community College of the University of Arkansas
South Arkansas Community College
Southeast Arkansas College
Southern Arkansas University Tech
University of Arkansas Community College at Batesville
University of Arkansas Community College at Hope/Texarkana
University of Arkansas Community College at Morrilton
University of Arkansas Cossatot
University of Arkansas Pulaski Technical College
University of Arkansas Rich Mountain

Appendix B

Survey Instrument Distributed to Participants

Thank you for participating in this survey. These questioned are designed to help gain a better understanding of how you feel about the organization for which you are currently employed. Please respond to the first 18 questions by indicating whether you strongly agree or disagree by using the following scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = slightly disagree, 4= undecided, 5 = slightly agree, 6 = agree, 7 = strongly agree After answering the survey questions, please tell us a bit about yourself in the six questions that follow. Thank you so much for your time!
1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9.It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10.Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11.I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12.If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
13.One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
14.I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
15.Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
16.I would feel guilty if I left my organization now. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

17.This organization deserves my loyalty. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
18.I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
19.I owe a great deal to my organization. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
1.What is your age?
_____ years old
2.What is your gender?
Male
Female
Prefer not to answer
3.What is your race?
American Indian or Alaska Native
Asian
Black or African American
Hispanic or Latino
White
Other
Prefer not to answer
4.How many years have you been teaching in higher education?
_____ years
5. How many years have you been with your present institution?
_____ years
6. What subject matter do you teach?
Arts/Humanities
Math/Science
Business
Technical
Developmental
Other
7.At which institution are you currently employed?
Arkansas Northeastern College
Arkansas State University Beebe
Arkansas State University Mid-South
Arkansas State University Mountain Home

Arkansas State University Newport
Black River Technical College
College of the Ouachitas
East Arkansas Community College
National Park College
North Arkansas College
North West Arkansas Community College
Ozarka College
Phillips Community College of the University of Arkansas
South Arkansas Community College
Southeast Arkansas College
Southern Arkansas University Tech
University of Arkansas Community College at Batesville
University of Arkansas Community College at Hope/Texarkana
University of Arkansas Community College at Morrilton
University of Arkansas Cossatot
University of Arkansas Pulaski Technical College
University of Arkansas Rich Mountain

Appendix C

Email Requesting Respondent Participation

Dear Respondent,

I am a doctoral student in the Adult and Lifelong Learning Department at the University of Arkansas, and I am conducting a study pertaining to the organizational commitment of faculty in community colleges in Arkansas. The objective of this study is to glean a better understanding of not only the level of faculty's commitment to their institutions, but also the predictors of their commitment. Enclosed at the end of this email is a link to the brief (10-minutes-or less) survey to be utilized by you. If you are the individual receiving this email, I ask that you please complete the survey.

Please respond by completing the survey at the link below within one week.

If you have any questions or concerns about completing the questionnaire or about participating in this study, you may contact me at (---) -------- or at calorch@email.uark.edu. If you have any questions about your rights as a research subject, you may contact the University of Arkansas Institutional Review Board (IRB) by mail at 109 MLKG, 1424 W. Martin Luther King, Jr., Fayetteville, AR 72701 or by phone at (479) 575-4572. This study (IRB # _____) was approved by the IRB on _____.

Sincerely,

Chris Lorch
Doctoral Student

Dr. Kevin Roessger
Advisor

Appendix D

IRB Approval

UNIVERSITY OF ARKANSAS.

To:	Chris A. Lorch
From:	Douglas James Adams, Chair IRB Committee
Date:	05/10/2018
Action:	**Exemption Granted**
Action Date:	05/10/2018
Protocol #:	1804115048
Study Title:	Identifying Predictors of Organizational Commitment Among Community College Faculty Members in Arkansas

The above-referenced protocol has been determined to be exempt.

If you wish to make any modifications in the approved protocol that may affect the level of risk to your participants, you must seek approval prior to implementing those changes. All modifications must provide sufficient detail to assess the impact of the change.